TEACHING THE CHILD TO READ

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Practical Studies in Reading Method

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FIRST EDITION

TO

MY WIFE

WHOSE APPRECIATIVE INTEREST
LIGHTENS THE LABOR AND
IMPROVES THE WORK
OF AUTHORSHIP

PREFACE

The essential features of this book, and therefore the principal reasons for its appearance, are the following:

First, theory and practice are thoroughly integrated. To this end a discussion of the best present-day thought upon the methodology of teaching the reading process is followed by reports of actual teaching in classes of children, and of studies carried on in theory classes: classes composed at times of teachers in training; at other times of experienced teachers who have enrolled in college courses to renew their contacts with fundamental principles. Thus, by what we may call a modified case system, the book gives practical point to underlying principles of instruction in the reading process. It is hoped that a book thus uniting theory and practice, at once serviceable and well grounded in authoritative investigation, will be welcomed by students and teachers who usually find the ever-accumulating data of the educational laboratories interesting but bewilderingly vast and difficult to master. A liberally inclusive bibliography appended will be of further use.

Second, ample provision is made for class, group, and individual study of selected problems. Each chapter is followed by a number of suggestions for research and discussion, providing for fuller treatment of various points that are, from necessity, only briefly considered in the body of the text. These study problems are not intended to be exhaustive in any sense, nor will all of them be found useful with every class. It is expected that wise selection and adaptation will be made, to meet special needs and local conditions.

Third, the arrangement of chapters—after a general preview in Part I—follows the chronological order of the school grades; that is, it follows the development of reading ability in the pupils from the beginning stage of prebook reading through the period of reading habit formation in the first three grades, the period of varied reading activities in the middle grades, and the junior-high-school period of refining tastes and abilities in reading. It has been thought advisable to follow this order because of its simplicity and demonstrated worth not only to teachers in training but also to teachers in service.

Fourth, each chapter is introduced by a statement of the main points to be treated, and is concluded by a brief paragraph in review, summarizing the central thought of the matter discussed in the chapter. Each part, or larger division, has likewise been preceded by a brief statement of the gist of what is to follow. This organization should prove helpful to the student during her normal school course and to classroom teachers as well. Special preparation for daily work will be assisted by ready reference to pertinent matter. The instructors of teachers in training will probably find the material thus brought together of real service in their planning of the semester's work.

The author wishes to thank his former associates in the New York Training School for Teachers for the generous aid given him throughout the long preparation of these pages. The Misses Dietz, Thompson, and Boyle helped greatly in the typing, and the former two students took down stenographically most of the lessons so reported; the Misses Gould, Rutter, and Steven kindly assisted in the demonstration of reading methods. Miss Battin gave her counsel in the matter of the pictorial

dictionary and its use; the Misses Weber and O'Connell conducted the long testing program reported in Chapter XIV; Miss E. L. Flynn gave of her experience in training teachers in reading methods; and Mr. Hugo Newman, principal of the school, was ever helpful. Finally, Dr. Francis M. Hamilton, head of the department of education and psychology, was especially kind in giving counsel upon the content of Chapter V, and in other ways as well.

To Professor Charles L. Robbins, of the University of Iowa, the author is indebted for critical comments following a very careful reading of the entire manuscript.

Any one at all familiar with the educational landscape will be quick to note in what debt another gleaner in the field must necessarily find himself. The present author expresses especial gratitude to the National Society for the Study of Education for its reports and, particularly, for the "Report of the National Committee on Reading" published in the *Twenty-Fourth Yearbook*. To many other investigators, specific reference has been made in footnotes, study problems, and bibliography.

It is through the generous courtesy of the Public School Publishing Company, the board of directors of the National Society referred to in the preceding paragraph, its secretary, Dr. Guy M. Whipple, and its chairman, Dean W. S. Gray, that quotation has been made from the *Yearbooks* of the Society.

Finally, the author should feel remiss indeed if he added no word of appreciation of the services of his wife, who has been unfailing in counsel and encouragement.

S. W. P.

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PART I

THE IMPORTANCE AND THE NATURE OF READING

CHAPTER I

THE READING TEACHER'S PROBLEM

The problems of Part I.—The special problems of this Part are related to such fundamental matters as underlie the whole reading process. These matters will be discussed in the following order: in Chapter I the nature of the reading teacher's problem; in Chapter II a brief history of the reading process as it has developed from the picture-writing of primitive times to the printed book of the present day; in Chapter III the development of the pedagogic study of reading from the age-old teaching of the alphabet—without much regard to how the child really learned to read—to the modern psychological approach to the reading process; in Chapter IV the physiological aspect of the reading process; in Chapter V the psychological aspect; and in Chapter VI the hygienic implications of the physio-psychological aspects of reading. In a word, Part I will discuss the broad foundation upon which the art of modern reading teaching is built.

The main points of Chapter I.—In this beginning chapter the reading teacher's problem is defined and its most important factors are explained. The following points are considered:

1. The general teaching problem.
2. The twofold problem in language teaching—expression and interpretation.
3. The problem of emphasis in the process of teaching reading.

4. The problem of individual differences among pupils—in age, ability, experience, sex, and training.
5. The problem of motivation.
6. The general aims of the reading teacher.

The general teaching problem.—At the very beginning it will be well to look at the teaching problem as a whole. In general, the teacher's work is threefold: to inspire, to direct, and to supervise.

To inspire pupils, a teacher must have an attractive personality—a personal quality which wins the hearts, minds, and wills of her pupils and makes school work pleasurable and worth while. Such a personality is not founded upon an easy-going willingness to amuse children or to give in to every childish whim or fancy. It is rather a personality which exhibits, day by day, among other qualities, enthusiasm, joyousness, friendliness, patience, fairness, considerateness, and self-control.

To direct or lead pupils, a teacher must have not only an attractive personality but also a thorough knowledge of her subject and the best methods for its presentation, together with an ability to organize and schedule her work as well as to present it in accordance with acceptable pedagogic principles. Definiteness, clearness, and simplicity are characteristics which every good teacher should display in the technique of classroom procedure.

To supervise the work of her pupils, a teacher requires a thorough and sympathetic understanding of the difficulties of the learning process, an ability to assist children in ways of effective study, and disciplinary insight into youthful tendencies and motives.

Teaching, in a word, is directing learning. The wise teacher so orders her own efforts and guides the efforts of her pupils that they are not only willing but able to

learn with efficiency on their own part and with a minimum of direction on hers.

The twofold problem in language teaching—expression and interpretation.—The teacher of language has a twofold task. She must teach her pupils how to express their thoughts and feelings in approved oral and written form, and also how to interpret what others have expressed.

A child must have something to say and write and must know how to use the instruments of language that he may say and write it effectively and in accordance with the best standards of his time. It will therefore be necessary for him to develop an adequate vocabulary from which to choose his words correctly in speech and in writing. It will likewise be necessary for him to master the technique of clear and forceful sentence and paragraph construction. Pronunciation, enunciation, phrasing, pitch, and rate as well as spelling, capitalization, and punctuation will all receive his attention.

Besides these expressional aspects of language—that is, composition—there is the interpretative aspect. Here, too, there is a technique for the pupil to master—the technique of oral and silent reading. The technique is not the same for silent as it is for oral reading. In oral reading, the pupil must be able to use the spoken symbols of language. As in free expression, he must be able to pronounce correctly, to enunciate clearly, and to phrase intelligently that which some one else has written. Of course, he must first understand what he is reading if he is to read aloud with due regard to the author's thought.

In silent reading, the pupil must grasp not only the meanings of words but also the meanings of such larger language units as the phrase, the clause, and the sentence. He must learn to take in these meanings rapidly and

clearly. Furthermore, he must interpret the page before him without feeling that his effort is merely preliminary to reading the words aloud. Since he has been using oral symbols all his life, it may be difficult for him without training to eliminate the movements of his speech organs as he reads silently.

The problem of emphasis in the process of teaching reading.—Part of the teacher's problem in teaching children to read is to determine which to emphasize—the technical elements of reading or the interpretation of content or subject matter.

Since the pupils have had very little experience with printed or written language symbols in the beginning school years, the study of the so-called mechanics of reading will necessarily take up very much of the class time. As the pupil proceeds through the school he gains more and more control over the tools of language. The classroom teacher finds her problem gradually changing, therefore, from one of emphasis upon the technical aspect of language to one of emphasis upon the thought aspect.

As class follows class from lower to higher grades, the oral reading problem assumes a somewhat different relationship to the reading process as a whole. In the lower classes the pupil reads aloud not only for personal and social reasons but also for surer mastery over the elementary speech ways of the language. In the higher classes he is made conscious of more refined ways of reading to bring out finer shades of meaning and deeper, more varied emotional effects.

The silent reading problem also assumes a somewhat different relationship to the reading process as a whole, as class succeeds class; but particularly is this so through the middle and later years. In the earlier grades silent

reading is largely a matter of interpretation of the simpler things that everyone is called upon to read in everyday life—signs, directions, and what not, all of immediately practical worth. Later, the child is made conscious of the meanings inherent in sentences, paragraphs, and larger composition wholes. Furthermore, he becomes aware of both the larger and subordinate meanings of a passage read as well as more discriminating in his discernment of the refinement of expression.

The little child comes to school possessed of a background of valuable experience, knowledge, and emotions, of ability acquired through varied, even if limited, contacts with life. Though he is able to express himself orally—sometimes with great fluency and not a little feeling—he is generally unable to recognize or understand the symbols on a written or printed page. The teacher's special problem at this stage is to teach her pupils this new mode of expression. In varying degree, this special problem of the so-called mechanics of reading will continue to play a large and fundamental part in the work of the school. Naturally, as the pupil's mastery of the fundamentals of reading becomes more and more automatic—a matter of habit—as he vocally responds and grows mentally mature, the teaching emphasis shifts to the meaning and spirit of what is read. Even in the highest grades, however, it may still be necessary for the teacher to emphasize the elements of reading technique—to drill on pronunciation, enunciation, and phrasing, to teach the child to grasp larger and larger language units.

While reading is today defined as primarily a matter of interpretation of printed or written matter, "interpretation" is not a word which should suffer from too narrow a definition. With life and living, as well as with improved

literary contacts, reading grows into something bigger than mere fact-gathering or even thought-getting. As a pupil's experience expands, his reading should take to itself a tone in harmony with a felt need and in sympathy with the mental and spiritual outlook of the writer. At first, the teacher will be content with the simpler, the more obvious meanings, but will gradually lead her pupils to a fuller, more colorful, perhaps more complex interpretation and appreciation. Even in the beginning grades it must be constantly borne in mind that it is not the symbol that is of first importance but rather what the symbol stands for. At all times, the teacher should take care not to permit overemphasis upon technique for its own sake. Mere technique may kill interest. It is not enough for a pupil to be able to pronounce a word correctly. He must know what it means in context. The idea lying back of the written symbol is of consequence. The thought or feeling connoted is of higher worth than the symbol on paper or on the tongue.

The problem of individual differences among pupils.—Teaching children to read would be far simpler if pupils were all alike, though very probably it would be less interesting.

For any large number of unselected persons it has been found that the greater number are average and that an approximately equal number are above and below average. Together they indicate the range of normal distribution. When it is reduced to graph form it shows a normal frequency curve, the bulge appearing over the center of the horizontal. For any special group this bulge may be at the left or at the right, indicating that the group for one reason or another does not conform to the usual distribution The curve is *skewed*, technically speaking. The

accompanying figure will illustrate the normal curve of distribution. Curves of distribution for pupils according to their achievement age in the comprehension of silent reading will be found elsewhere.[1]

In experience, too, children differ much. Home conditions largely determine how wide the cultural environ-

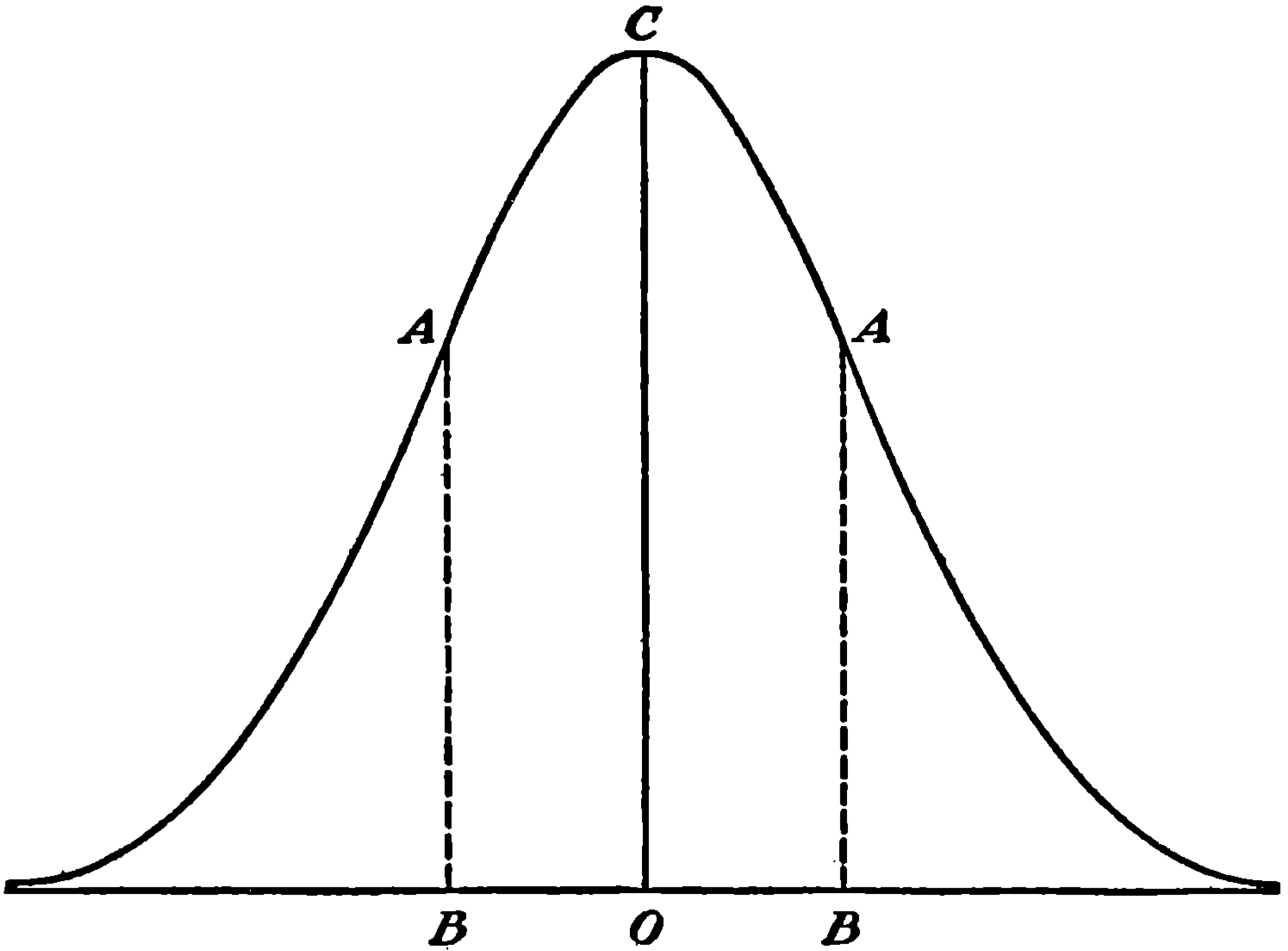

FIGURE 1. THE NORMAL CURVE OF DISTRIBUTION OR FREQUENCY CURVE

ment shall be. The limited opportunity of many city children to enjoy the phenomena of nature is well known, and the limitation of opportunity for country children to mingle with all sorts and conditions of people is also a fact. The economic welfare of the family and the occupational outlook and educational vision of the parents are factors of weight in the school life and achievement of pupils.

[1]Pages 374 and 483. These curves and that above are taken by permission from MONROE, DEVOSS, and REAGAN'S *Educational Psychology*.

There is also the difference between the sexes. It is not at present possible to say to what extent boys and girls differ mentally at any given age. Common observation leads one to believe that they vary more widely in some subjects than in others. Probably most teachers would agree that girls are likely to possess a greater steadiness of application to a particular task, while boys display a greater exploratory tendency and a more inventive turn. Perhaps, too, it would be agreed that girls excel in certain artistic lines while boys surpass girls in their initiative and eagerness to probe the heart of a problem. It is probably true that so far as innate intellectual capacity goes boys and girls develop to about the same level.

Aside from native and environmental differences in individual children, there is the difference due to training in the school itself. Teachers exhibit individual differences, too. Unfortunately, all teachers are far from equal in either native ability or professional attainment. There are so many elements in this phase of our problem that it is not at all easy to say just what is what. It seems fairly clear, however, that a child's attitude has much to do with his achievement. It is likewise clear that if he has a motive for doing a school exercise he will go farther than if he has none.

Psychologists are not of one mind in their views upon the effect of training on individual differences in achievement. Some maintain that, granted equal training, the individual differences in achievement are increased accordingly, while others maintain that such training tends to decrease the differences in achievement. One or two things seem certain, namely, that initial ability plays a conspicuous part in a pupil's accomplishment and that equal training is not so frequent as it should be.

Interpretation or understanding of what one reads is dependent in no small measure upon previously acquired experience and knowledge which, as we have seen, are themselves in great degree dependent upon age, native ability, environment, sex, and training. What a pupil takes from a printed page is the result of what he brings to it. When you and I see a flag, our interpretation of the symbol is conditioned upon what we know of the country it represents, and our feeling toward it upon the patriotic fervor it evokes. So it is with words, sentences, and larger units of language. The single word "mother" has a wealth of connotative value only to be interpreted and appreciated—that is, only to be read—by one who has known a mother's love and care. The understanding of a single sentence—"Don't do that!"—is meaningful only in so far as prior knowledge and experience fill it with associations.

The problem of motivation.—When the teacher begins to question her pupils upon the general background of what they are about to read, or upon what they have got from the page before them, after they have read, she becomes aware of their limitations—limitations of native ability and inheritance, limitations of environment and cultural opportunity—all varying of course, as we have noted above, according to age, sex, previous training, and what not. New reading lessons will, therefore, frequently require more or less orientation. The teacher must elicit as much as she can from the pupils' store of information and imagination. She must also add much herself both orally and objectively as the need appears. If possible, each individual child must be reached. The stage must be so set that this boy or that girl, bright or dull, privileged or underprivileged, receives every

aid to the proper understanding of what is read. A motive must be provided if genuine interest is to be aroused. Pupils should not be asked to face printed symbols without a feeling that reading is a valuable activity. Attitude has a great deal to do with success.

There are several available helps to the interpretation of literature. These lie in the field of the senses and in self-activity. At varying rates, children have been acquiring sense impressions of the world in which they live. Their responses to sense appeals will, therefore, not be all alike by any means. A pupil's acuteness of sense is not apt to be identical for all his senses. Illustrative material, visual and auditory devices, are valuable as aids, but in using them the teacher should take into account the facts of individual differences. Furthermore, not too much material should be supplied; the free rein of the pupil's imagination must not be curbed unduly, nor must he be given a poor impression as a substitute for a richer image that he might have conjured up for himself.

Interpretation may be clarified, broadened, and deepened by linking the material read with other art forms. Literature in its widest acceptation—all reading matter—is itself one of these forms. It is not the only one, to be sure, though its relative frequency in our environment and its widely general availability make it the most important.

Through the several art forms, meaning and feeling may be conveyed by appeals to the senses—especially to sight, touch, and hearing—and particularly to the child's natural instinct of self-activity. For example, the vividness of the dramatic appeal goes almost without saying. To read a play is one thing, to see it acted is another, but to act it oneself is very different from either. The function of music in teaching a lyric poem is manifest. Motion

pictures, the radio, dancing, travel, painting, and sculpture may also be avenues to interpretation.

Whether a lesson is to be mainly a reading lesson or mainly a music or drawing or dramatic lesson, with reading in the minor rôle, will depend largely upon the teacher's attitude toward the material before the class as well as upon her understanding of her pupils' needs. In making up her mind as to the slant she will give her lesson on, say, "Sweet and Low," she should consider not only the song element inherent in the selection but also the probable interest of her pupils. Will they receive satisfactory impressions if they merely read the poem, or will those impressions be deeper if they sing it too? If the selection is a stirring narrative such as one of an historical episode or frontier experience, perhaps the dramatic appeal will be better than silent reading or oral reading alone can afford. Reading takes its place as major or minor in an appreciation lesson according as all of the conditions of pupil ability and background, the nature of the subject matter, and the amount of time at one's disposal seem to suggest.

Another question which the teacher of reading must face is: What of the content from the standpoint of oral appeal to others? Will a pupil's or the teacher's interpretative reading give a clearer impression of the meaning and evoke a more satisfactory esthetic response in her pupils than if they read the piece silently for themselves? Briefly: Has the selection audience situation value? Browning's "Saul" never meant so much to the writer as when he heard it read by a gifted person with genuine feeling for the poem and a deep knowledge and liking for the poet. On the other hand, a reference note at the foot of a page, a story which one may relish for oneself in the quiet of a library,

a difficult passage in prose or verse, over which one must ponder, these may all call for silent reading. Of course, here too, it depends upon one's attitude toward the material and upon the conditions under which classroom activities are conducted. Life's needs demand both oral and silent reading, though we are more frequently so circumstanced as to make silent reading imperative whether the matter read has audience value or not.

Broadly speaking, we may read either for recreation or for study. In the words of the Report of the National Committee on Reading,[1] "reading activities may be conveniently grouped into two types, depending more on the attitude of the reader than on the subject matter. . It is not intended, as indeed it seems quite impossible, to set up any full and complete separation between them. Not only may almost any selection or book be read with different purposes by different readers or by the same reader at different times, but one's attitude or purpose may change in the course of his reading."

In general, it may be said that reading may be considered *recreatory*, when it "is associated with the wholesome enjoyment of leisure time,"[2] and *work-type*, or study, when it "is associated with the demands of our vocations, civic duties, and other phases of daily life."[3]

One's reading, therefore, depends largely upon one's purpose, one's state of mind, as it were. When one is on pleasure bent, not counting the minutes, not considering any practical, workaday results, one's reading takes the form of recreation. When, on the other hand, one is

[1]Page 5 of *Part I* of the *Twenty-Fourth Yearbook* of the National Society for the Study of Education.

[2]*Ibid.*, page 7.

[3]*Ibid.*, page 5.

seriously pursuing information, solving a problem, doing any one of the dozen useful things wherein reading is a help in life, then one's reading becomes a kind of work. With the reading of children, in school or out, it is likewise a matter of purpose or intent. For each of these two types of reading—the recreatory and the work-type—it will be the business of later chapters to suggest a definite teaching technique.

The general aims of the reading teacher.—There are three outstanding aims for the teacher of reading to bear in mind: (1) to provide vicarious experience; (2) to instill worthy motives; and (3) to establish correct attitudes. These aims[1] are broad generalizations which teachers of reading should keep before them. Every reading lesson should contribute something toward their realization.

1. *To provide vicarious experience.*—"Rich and varied experience" should be a conscious pedagogic aim. In no other way than through reading will the great mass of children escape the rut of narrow existence, physical, mental, emotional, and spiritual. The selection of material consonant with this aim should be a prime pursuit of classroom effort in all grades from the beginning through the high school. None other is more enduringly important.

2. *To instill worthy motives.*—If the realization of the preceding aim is to be fully attained, "strong motives for, and permanent interests in, reading" must obviously be provided. Altogether too much of the school's energy is wasted because of the brief endurance of the influence exerted. It is hardly making too broad a statement to say that when the teacher feels that she has done her best

[1]See pages 9 ff. of the *Twenty-Fourth Yearbook.* Following quotations in this chapter are from the same source.

to instill worthy reading motives she may be assured that her labors as a teacher of reading have not been in vain. The true test of her success lies here. The teacher whose pupils sit on a doorstep of an afternoon, or on a porch of a summer's day, reading a book to some useful purpose, whether of recreation or study, has gone a long way toward solving for them a far-reaching social problem, namely, the proper use of leisure time.

3. *To establish correct attitudes.*—Besides providing opportunities for "rich and varied experience," and inculcating "strong motives for, and permanent interests in, reading," the school should seek to establish "desirable attitudes and economical and effective habits and skills" in reading. As we know, such attitudes, habits, and skills are fundamental to life's activities in general and, as we have learned, are no less fundamental to the specific activity of reading.

Review.—In general, a teacher's work is threefold: to inspire, to direct, and to supervise the learning activities of her pupils. Expression (composition) and interpretation (reading) make up the twofold problem of the teacher of language. In teaching reading the classroom teacher must necessarily stress the mechanics of the art in the earliest grades but as soon as possible shifts the emphasis to the interpretative aspect. Always, however, she must keep in the forefront the meaning of what is read. Individual differences among children, in age, ability, experience, sex, and training, tend to modify the teaching program. Proper motivation also is important in the teaching of reading. The most effective means should be employed to give purpose to reading and to stimulate desire to read on the pupil's part. The general aims of the teacher of reading are to provide vicarious experience, to

instill worthy motives and to establish correct attitudes—all for the enrichment of life and the improvement of living.

STUDY PROBLEMS

[Explanatory note.—The study problems at the ends of chapters are intended to be not so many academic tasks but rather additional opportunities for study of the more important topics treated in the text. No book can cover the entire field of any subject. Its chief service is probably the direction it affords the student to plow and harvest on his own account. Provision is made for class, small group, and individual work.

The discussion topics are offered in the hope that they will be points of departure for profitable classroom debate and comment. Students should prepare their work very carefully beforehand. A topical arrangement is suggested. Mere opinions should rarely be presented—never without forethought—and, as a rule, only when supported by reference and proof. Otherwise, discussion is apt to become as time-wasting as it is tedious, without substantial benefit to anybody.

Several students may do a very valuable piece of research as a group, afterwards making report in class (a) through a single chairman, his associates explaining certain specific points as occasion may arise, or (b) through several chairmen of subdivisions of the work, each developing a part of the complete report.

Some topics are better suited to individual treatment. There is an important place for such research in so broad an area as the teaching of reading occupies in the schools of today.

In all reports there should appear (a) a preliminary list of topics covered, (b) a summary paragraph of results attained or conclusions reached, and (c) a brief, annotated bibliography. If possible, these three items should be mimeographed and made available for all students. One or more of the items might be written on the blackboard if a hectograph or mimeograph machine is not available.

The theme assignments are in the nature of essay topics for written exposition and possible inclusion in a school's pedagogic

journal. Their development and treatment should be clear, interesting, sequential, and not too long. Summaries for class distribution also may be prepared and should prove their worth in practical usefulness.]

A. Discussion Topics

1. The movies and the radio have lessened the present-day child's need for reading, and have diminished his interest in self-expression.

2. The teaching of self-expression presupposes an ability to read.

3. "The true university of these days is a collection of books."—Thomas Carlyle.

4. "Reading maketh a full man."—Francis Bacon.

5. "The daily newspaper has destroyed the desire of many people to read substantial matter."

6. "A surprisingly large number of people are not interested in reading, do not read, cannot read effectively, even simple matter."—*Twenty-Fourth Yearbook*, page 3. Students should visit their nearest public library, consult the librarian, reflect upon their friends' reading, and study book reviews before they discuss this topic.

7. "The teacher of composition is the really creative artist; the teacher of reading is a mere transmitter of more or less lifeless traditions."

8. "Reading must be in the nature of a task in the presence of a drama, a musical recital, or even the movies."

9. "Reading is the only art that is most constantly serviceable throughout life."

10. "The use of illustrative material may quite conceivably impair the child's imagination. For example, if we print a picture of a scene it will be this view alone which will fix itself in the young reader's memory for life."

B. Group Research Topics

1. A study of the occupational activities of the men and women of a given neighborhood (that of the school, for example), to determine the emphasis that a projected public library should

place on one or the other of the broad objectives mentioned in this chapter.

2. A catalogue of books in a school library (for any grade) prepared to meet the civic or vocational objectives referred to in this chapter.

3. A report on the definitions of reading as found in the works of a few of the great writers. Consultation should first be made of such a book of quotations as Hoyt's or Bartlett's and then of the books of the authors mentioned.

4. A study of a class to discover (a) the pupils' limitations of experience, (b) their motives, or (c) their attitudes, as these are discussed in the text.

C. Individual Research Topics

1. The aims and objectives of reading as set forth in any currently used reading series. A brief critical appraisal of these aims and objectives in the light of the points presented in this chapter.

2. The cultural background of any class of school children. A tabulation should be made (a) of the factors that will probably operate in favor of successful reading, and (b) of those that will probably militate against it.

3. The study of a selected number of prose and poetic pieces, intended for a given grade, with brief notes upon (a) the desirability of having them read aloud or silently in a classroom, (b) the advisability of procuring illustrative material as an aid in reading, and (c) the selection of pieces which would lend themselves best to dramatization.

4. A study of the material in any grade reader with a view to determining to what extent it exemplifies the objectives mentioned in this chapter.

D. Theme Assignments

1. My own reading in the light of the objectives and aims mentioned in this chapter.

2. How my elementary school teachers stimulated my reading by the use of various appeals to sense and self-activity.

3. Definite ways in which I believe my reading might have been better stimulated.

4. A personal survey of my recent reading to note which of the books or articles might have been made more interesting and instructive by (a) seeing a play, (b) hearing a lecture beforehand, or (c) listening to the radio.

5. The art forms—drama, music, sculpture, architecture, painting—in the order of their appeal to me and their value in elucidating my reading.

6. A review of *The Nation and the Schools*, by J. A. H. KEITH and W. C. BAGLEY.

CHAPTER II

FROM PICTURE-WRITING TO PRINTED BOOK[1]

The main points of this chapter.—This chapter presents a brief sketch of the history of the reading process down the centuries from the time when primitive man first tried to express his thoughts and feelings in pictures, to the period of the development of the alphabet, and through the later centuries when vast changes were wrought by reason of the invention of printing from movable type. The main points considered are as follows:

1. The significance of the history of expressional ability.
2. The earliest forms of written expression.
3. The evolution of the alphabet.
4. The significance of the invention of the printing press in the fifteenth century.

The significance of the history of expressional ability.—Primitive man required ages to discover how to communicate his thoughts, his feelings, his inspirations, and his aspirations by a system other than that of gesture and word of mouth. The story of the race's growth from the days of the cave men to our own is the story of experiments with the ways and means of self-expression. From the prehistoric period when men could read each other's thoughts only in each other's faces, gestures, or spoken

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[1]A knowledge of the genesis and growth of so important an art as that of reading makes a cultural contribution of worth to the teacher's professional preparation for her work.

words, unknown centuries elapsed before messages could be transmitted and received from afar through the utilization of a few letter symbols. The progress of enlightenment has lain along this long route of the ages. The history of expressional ability has marked mankind's advance in civilization.

Expression in earliest times.—Man's earliest attempts to communicate were very, very crude. At first, gestures and inarticulate speech were his only means of self-expression. Just when man discovered the art of drawing pictures to indicate his thoughts no one can tell. All we know is that through long ages he was obliged to depend upon grunts and groans and cries to communicate with his neighbor.

A great step was taken when primitive man learned how to cut lines in stone, wood, or bone to represent the simple sounds that he used in naming the concrete objects round about him. These picture-drawings are called pictographs. They appear on ancient monuments of Egypt and other lands the history of which dates back to remote antiquity. Before such pictographs could be made, it is probable that some sounds had come to be considered standard for certain definite objects, such as animals, houses, weapons, and what not.

For many thousands of years pictographs served man's needs. All of them were the expression of the simplest, most elemental of human interests, chiefly the things of daily use. Like children, primitive men scratched or drew lines and angles to represent their shelter, their tools, their friends, and their foes—often enough with telling effect even if roughly and with an undeveloped artistic sense.

It was a long stride forward when man's crude picto-

graphs evolved into ideographs—the expression of his ideas, his thoughts, or his feelings. The possibilities that the ideograph held for the race's intellectual growth were indeed limitless. Man could now cut his notions of hunger and thirst, love and hate, for instance, into stone or wood or, later, he could bake them in clay. He had found a new way to indicate what he thought of barter and exchange, of war and peace, life and death. Natural phenomena—day and night, summer and winter—likewise became the subjects of ancient draftsmen's skill.

For a long time the pictograph and the ideograph continued to represent specific objects and ideas. Each person drew in his own way, and every drawing stood for a single object or idea. Gradually, very gradually, men learned to generalize their picture-drawings so that they did not need to draw an individual object or idea but that which was typical of a class. Instead of this cat or that house, a conventionalized cat or conventionalized house was depicted. Instead of this daylight or that night, daylight and night in general were treated. Instead of some special warlike situation, war as war was cut into the still crude material of the time. The great result of this conventionalization was, of course, the making of more widely useful symbols—symbols which were found applicable to a large number of objects and ideas—symbols, too, which could be more generally read and understood.

The process of generalization and conventionalization was very slow, to be sure, though in certain centers of early culture the development was much more rapid than in others. A significant result of this change was the simplification of the outlines of characters or symbols. The original pictures grew more and more unlike their former

selves. A curve was flattened out here, a line omitted or an angle broadened there. Furthermore, man's very carelessness, or his ineptitude, in the pictorial art helped not a little to transform his primitive drawings into something which in time came to resemble the letters of an alphabet.

Furthermore, this process of generalization led to the limitation of the number of characters. Naturally, whereas there had been representations for individual objects or ideas, there were but few symbols needed when man learned to express his specific sensations and thoughts in general or conventionalized fashion.

Intermediate steps between earliest alphabetic symbols and our alphabet.—Several intermediate steps had still to be taken, however, before our simple code of letters was to evolve. It was the work of no one age or place or people. There was, for instance, a crude syllabication—merely the stringing together of several pictographs or ideographs to express a more comprehensive thought than the single symbol could represent. Much later came the significant discovery of the possibility and utility of analysis of the individual symbol into still simpler characters. Man's expanding inner world of thoughts and emotions, his growing intellectual power, his keener perception of the worth of the instrument that had been so slowly evolving must now, sooner or later, give him a code of symbols which would inevitably spell a most radical change in his life and destiny.

Though the Egyptians are usually considered to have had a large share in the development of the alphabet they do not appear to have used it to the best advantage, for they often combined the simpler generalized and conventionalized symbols with the earlier, cruder forms, even sub-

stituting the one for the other, and usually making their characters strongly reminiscent of the pictorial writing or drawing of their ancestors.

Not only the inhabitants of the Valley of the Nile, however, should be credited with the evolution of the

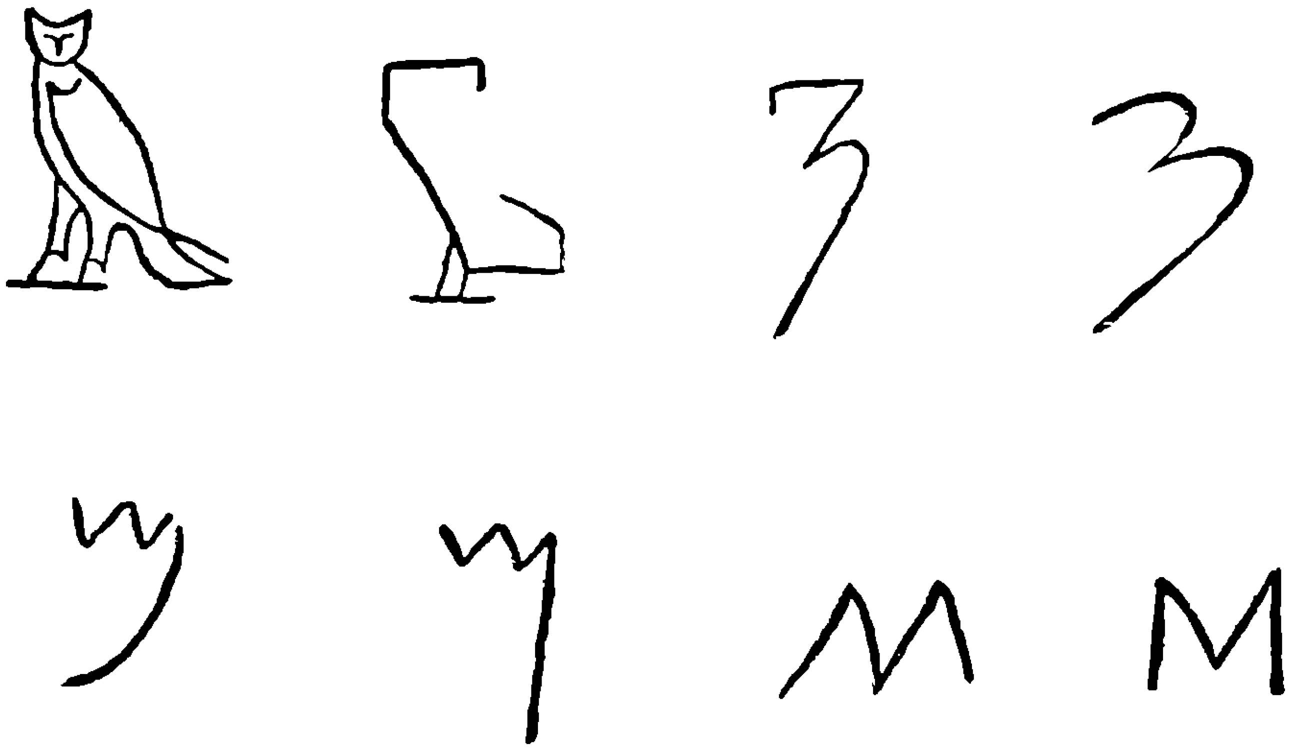

FIGURE 2. THE EVOLUTION OF A LETTER OF THE ALPHABET THROUGH CONVENTIONALIZATION[1]

alphabet as we have received it. The inhabitants of the Ægean Sea—the Hellenic peoples—did much toward the same end. Indeed, it is to a number of peoples in Asia, eastern Europe, and northern Africa that western civilization is indebted for this early linguistic advancement.

The contribution of the Phoenicians.—The Phoenicians did much still further to develop the writing codes they found on the shores of the Mediterranean. These maritime folk were in more ways than one a remarkable people, but their chief claim to our gratitude lies in their quick-witted evaluation of the crude but superior and extremely serviceable language symbols of the lands with which

[1]From Judd's *Genetic Psychology for Teachers*, page 208. Reproduced by permission of D. Appleton and Company.

their commercial enterprises brought them into contact. To the Phoenicians and the wide popularization they gave the alphabet, the Greek of later classic times owed that code of letters which was to enable him to write his literary masterpieces. The conquering Roman was quick to adopt the heritage of others. The Greek alphabet he made his own and, modifying it and adapting it to his use, left it an instrument for the culture of medieval and modern times.

The significance of the invention of the printing press.— The Greek and Roman influence made of the alphabet a great literary tool. Culture spread over Europe during the later Middle Ages through the patient work of the scholar and copyist. Hundreds of years passed, however, before literature could be very widely disseminated. Between the fall of the western empire of Rome and the invention of printing from movable types, centuries elapsed.[1]

The tedious process of duplicating books had made learning an accomplishment limited to the very, very few. With the epoch-making invention of printing in the fifteenth century the whole course of educational history was changed. Leadership must sooner or later pass from the favored minority to the favored majority. More and more man's desire to read kept pace with his opportunity to read, and his opportunity with his desire. In time, reading and learning must become something more than the marks of the orator and the cleric. The Greek pedagogue—who was a slave—and the medieval university—which was a convocation of scholarly groups—must henceforth be way-stations on the road to the schools of the

[1]Though the Chinese learned how to do much the same thing their efforts cannot be said to have had appreciable or general results.

people. The universalization of the ability to read has been one of the chief distinguishing characteristics of the period in history that we call modern times.

Review.—The history of reading is closely parallel to the story of mankind's advancement from inarticulate calls and cries and gestures, within a narrow physical, social, and intellectual environment, to a civilization marked by universality of opportunity to interpret the written expression of others. From the day of pictographs, those crude ancient drawings of objects of sense, through that of ideographs, the drawings of ideas and feelings, man learned slowly to generalize and conventionalize his primitive efforts at written expression. The evolution of the code of letters known as the alphabet came in the natural course of development. With this cultural tool, vastly increased in usefulness through the invention of printing in the fifteenth century, mankind's horizons have been broadened beyond measure or conjecture. In time, for all people, literary and cultural contacts will be possible through their ability to read.

STUDY PROBLEMS

A. Discussion Topics

1. Civilization, as attested by the development of expressional ability as well as by other movements throughout history, is after all the result of environmental conditions and the desire to satisfy human needs and aspirations.

2. When one considers the poor, ineffective use to which many men seem to put their ability to read, it may be fairly argued that the printing press was hardly the great servant of civilization that some would have us believe.

3. The contribution of the Phoenicians has been unfairly appraised in comparison with that of the Greco-Roman world.

4. The evolution of the alphabet has been more important to mankind than the evolution of the ways and means of warfare.

B. Group Research Topics

1. A summary of the accounts of the origin of the alphabet as found in the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, the *New International Encyclopedia*, and in such a work as Clodd's *The Story of the Alphabet.*

2. A comparative study of the alphabets of several modern (or ancient) languages.

3. The place accorded the history of reading and writing in the development of civilization as noted in several modern historical works treating ancient times.

4. A résumé of the first three chapters of Huey's *The History and Pedagogy of Reading*—Chapter I, "The Beginnings of Reading in the Interpretation of Gestures and Pictures"; Chapter II, "The Evolution of an Alphabet and of Reading by Alphabetic Symbols"; Chapter III, "The Evolution of the Printed Page."

C. Individual Research Topics

1. The part played by the Phoenicians in the evolution of the alphabet. Consult a large encyclopedia or Clodd's *The Story of the Alphabet.*

2. The contribution of the Egyptian to the evolution of the alphabet. Consult a large encyclopedia or Clodd's *The Story of the Alphabet.*

3. The relation of the Chinese to the invention of printing. Consult a large encyclopedia, such a work as that by Giles or Hirth, or any good similar work in a public library.

D. Theme Assignments

1. How I learned the alphabet.

2. The present day child's road to literacy is not wholly unlike the long road that the race itself has traveled toward the same goal.

3. Some current codes of communication other than the alphabet.

CHAPTER III

THE EVOLUTION OF MODERN READING METHODS

The main points of this chapter.—There is much of instruction as well as of interest in tracing the evolution of any art. The perspective of the past tends to vivify present-day experience. A knowledge of the development of modern reading methodology ought to inspire greater confidence in classroom practice. In order to prepare the student for an understanding of present-day practice in teaching reading, the following points are discussed in this chapter:

1. Why modern methods have evolved.
2. Historic methods of teaching reading.
3. Three periods in present-day teaching-of-reading programs.

Why modern methods have evolved.—The method of teaching reading has always been of central pedagogic importance. From ancient times until the present, reading has been necessarily the corner stone in the educational structure. The invention of the printing press, as we have seen, created a revolution in the means of disseminating learning. The rise of modern democratic states has made a literate public imperative. To teach an American child to read has seemed the very first step in guaranteeing to him his constitutional rights of "life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness."

One of the basic reasons for the establishment of public schools was to teach reading in order that the children of the great mass of people might take an intelligent place in a democratic state. Mass education became necessary if for no other than economic reasons, and it thus became incumbent upon teachers to find some simple, appealing method applicable to larger groups of pupils. To teach an individual child to read is one thing; to teach a class of forty, fifty, or sixty children to read is obviously a very different thing. Hence the century-long search for improved reading methods.

Historic Methods of Teaching Reading

Generally speaking, the results of this search for the most efficient method may be classified under three major heads, namely, the synthetic method, the analytic method, and the analytic-synthetic method.

Through the memorization of the alphabet, or the discrimination of the sounds that make up a word—the study of phonics—the teacher of the synthetic method leads her pupils progressively from a knowledge of the simplest symbols to an understanding of words, first of one syllable, then of two syllables, and later of three or more syllables. These words are finally read in sentences. In both the alphabetic and the phonic methods pupils thus start with the smallest language units—either written or spoken—and out of these gradually, perhaps laboriously, build up larger and larger wholes. In either case, the goal is clear—precise oral reading with word mastery, rather than thought-getting, as the primary objective.

The teacher of the analytic method seeks first to interest her pupils in a story which she tells the children and which they discuss with her. Important sentences, and later

significant phrases and words, are then singled out for special study. From the more frequently found words certain word parts, which are often repeated in other words, are separated and given special attention. More fluent oral reading and more speedy silent reading are the goals of this method. Thought-getting, rather than mere word-mastery, is the primary objective.

Underlying both of these historic methods of teaching reading has been the unremitting quest for the basic unit of language that shall be best calculated to serve the teacher in leading the child toward the goal of literacy. Is it the letter, the sound element, the word, the sentence, or some still larger language unit? Practically all of the systems of reading in common use today have espoused one or the other, or a combination, of these basic language elements. Practically all, also, largely for vocabulary-building reasons, combine the synthetic with the analytic, though the analytic is basic.

The synthetic method of teaching reading.—As has been said, the synthetic method begins with the elements of words—letters or sounds—and proceeds to build these up into syllables, syllables into words, words into phrases, and phrases into sentences.

The alphabet supreme.—Until well beyond the middle of the last century the alphabet method reigned supreme in most English-speaking classrooms. Until very much later, it continued to have its warm advocates and practitioners. To be able to say one's ABC's was for long ages a prime accomplishment on the part of any young person. For neither teacher nor taught, however, was there much, if any, genuine interest in the larger objective, thought-getting. "Drill, drill, drill!" was the order of the day. The school atmosphere was chilled with formality,

the discipline was rigid. The only outward and visible sign of even the rudimentary idea of what we nowadays call the social side of classroom work was the concert recitation where all of the pupils recited in unison. For the most part, the reading period consisted of a succession of minutes punctuated by a teacher-pupil duet, with the pupils rendering syllables orally, and the teacher commanding or directing everything. The individual child followed as best he could. His classmates were presumably ever alert for the unhappy error. Self-activity came through a "show of hands."

The revival of phonics.—In progressive schoolrooms, some sixty years ago, sounds tended to supplant letters in the teaching of beginning reading. In principle, there was little really new in this change, for reading had been so taught at least three centuries earlier, and spelling was still at the root of the whole procedure. There could hardly be a question about the practical, oral-reading superiority of the teaching of sounds over letters, and the revival of interest in phonics showed remarkable vigor.[1] For a time, its conquest seemed all but complete. Indeed, the rumblings of the conflict are yet to be heard in some quarters.[2]

The phonic method provided a much better way of attacking new words. Pupils learned to do this in a fashion truly marvelous in the sight of both teacher and parent. Since it was a day when oral reading was the principal objective, the child's ear was trained to discrim-

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[1]As seen, for example, in REBECCA S. POLLARD'S *Synthetic Method of Teaching Reading and Spelling*—an extreme but once very popular statement of the case for phonics.

[2]Read CURRIER, LILLIAN B., and DUGUID, OLIVE C., "Phonics or No Phonics?"

inate sounds and he was led to clear and precise articulation. There can be no question about the results, for they were evident in many a classroom.

Nevertheless, like their fellow-laborers with the alphabetic method, the teachers of the phonic method were essentially drill masters and formalists. To get the word mastered, to pronounce it correctly—these were their primary concerns, these were the ends they sought. Unfortunately, there were still those unphonetic elements in the language, expressing hardly more than a dozen vowel sounds, with many disconcerting silent letters and consonants with several sounds. All of these difficulties had to be dealt with, phonics or no phonics. Even more disconcerting, stammering oftentimes increased despite the skill and patience of the teacher. No very satisfactory solution of this complex problem appeared possible although the efforts to meet it took shape in several ways. The use of diacritical marks and later the use of phonetic transcription were enlisted to the teacher's side.

The phonetic movement.[1]—Diacritical marks came into wide popularity a generation or two ago. For one thing, they helped the pupil to pronounce words with silent letters as well as others with various vowel and consonant values. A super-refinement later gained vogue in the form of a special phonetic alphabet. Zealous pedagogic missionaries vigorously pressed its claims while it speedily transformed the appearance of words on the page of the class reader. Since we use far more sounds in pronouncing our words than we use letters in writing them, each sound was accorded its own symbol. Many new symbols had, of course, to be invented. Strong—some authorities have

[1]Consult such a book as McLean's *Good American Speech.*

thought, somewhat extravagant—opinions were early expressed in behalf of phonetic transcription, as the new system of symbols was called, and an increasing number of enthusiastic advocates have accelerated the momentum of the movement during recent years.

There can be no doubt that pupils, once they learn the phonetic symbols, do learn to pronounce words more quickly and, on the whole, with reasonable acceptability. There can be no doubt, therefore, of the value of teaching phonetics in the beginning years as a helpful adjunct to the reading process. Especially is this so with children of foreign linguistic inheritance. The contention that the transition to normal print, a "carry over" which must be made some time, is difficult for the pupil, and time-wasting, can hardly be considered tenable in the light of practice. On the other hand, phonetics alone will not teach a child to read. Phonetically-minded teachers should remember what alphabetic-method teachers had to learn, namely, that modern psychological understanding of the nature of the reading process clears away the age-old notion that the letter or the letter-sound is the learning unit in reading. "Although words are made up of letters, a skillful reader does not look at each letter in recognizing a word."[1] Likewise, it may be said that, although words are made up of sounds, a skillful reader does not pronounce all the sounds fused together as if they were separate and distinct one from another. Similarly, a young reader may be able correctly to pronounce any and every word in a sentence and still not know how to read intelligently. For to read silently with intelligence one must have been trained to interpret not single words merely but rather

[1]See Monroe, DeVoss, and Reagan's *Educational Psychology*, page 449.

words in the context of phrase, of clause, and of sentence. To read orally with intelligence one must have practised, among other things, word-grouping in phrases, as well as have given attention to sentence rhythm.

Probably the greatest service that phonetics can render is not in the reading lesson as such—though its usefulness as an accessory in the oral reading process is conceded—but rather in the "speech improvement" class, where the correction of defects and the general improvement of oral English may become marked through the teaching of competent, phonetically trained teachers.

A possibly more practical solution of the difficulty presented by the unphonetic character of the language is approached through a consideration of the question: What sounds are really necessary in the formation of words? Certainly, not all sounds. This much one may say at the outset. It has already been indicated that a knowledge of the sound of every letter in every word will not of itself assure correct pronunciation. In reasonably rapid oral reading, as everybody knows, one does not pronounce all of the sounds in equal measure. Many teachers who use the phonic method have, therefore, made a selection of the more useful sounds.

The analytic method of teaching reading.—As has been indicated above, this method differs from the synthetic in that it emphasizes taking larger language units apart rather than putting smaller units together. It differs even more radically in its understanding of the basic nature of reading as a thought-getting process. The conception of reading as thinking is more and more in the forefront of teaching. The child as well as the matter he is asked to read takes the center of the stage because of the growing revision of our definition of a schoolroom as not teacher-

centered but child-centered.[1] The child must be interested in his reading. Indeed, he must show a zest for this activity. Reading as meaning-getting is primary, while mere word-calling dissociated from recognition of meaning is not in accord with the best prevailing theory and practice.

The word as the language unit.—The substitution of word-recognition for letter-recognition or sound-recognition marks the transition from the synthetic to the analytic method of teaching reading. Psychologically, the change is solidly founded. Words are more interesting to a child than letters or sounds. Words have meaning, and it is therefore easier to recognize words than letters, sounds, or syllables. In the typical word-teaching classroom[2] one observes children mastering a relatively large number of words in an astonishingly short time. Such mastery is attained, in the main, through some form of phonetics, usually a system of diacritical markings. Usually, too, words are analyzed into smaller sound-units[3] from which various new words may easily be formed by adding initial consonants.

It is interesting to remark here that a century or more ago no less a person than Horace Mann, the renowned secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education, sponsored the word method. Indeed, as far back as the seventeenth century, John Amos Comenius, the great educational reformer, and others in France and elsewhere at various times, have been numbered among its adherents.

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[1]Read Chapter V, "New Articles of Faith", of RUGG and SHUMAKER'S *The Child-Centered School.*

[2]Such as used WARD'S *The Rational Method of Reading.*

[3]These are called phonograms and consist of a combined vowel and consonant pronounced as a unit. See page 154 for special note.

Not until late in the nineteenth century, however, did the principles of this method find distinct favor in the United States.

The sentence as the language unit.—Although, like the word method, the sentence method has been more or less in the pedagogic air since the time of Comenius, it did not develop renewed vigor until practically the close of the last century.

The word-method teachers were, after all, essentially drill masters. Vocabulary building was, for the most part, their prime objective. Interesting reading material was not always prominent, and interest was seriously lessened by the teacher's overemphasis upon precise pronunciation and the ready recognition of words.

The significant difference between the word method and the sentence method lay in the deeper realization on the part of the sentence-unit advocates of the fundamental purpose of reading, namely, to get thought from a printed page. It is only fair to note in passing that much more interesting material was increasingly used. For example, Farnham,[1] who first revived this method at Binghamton, New York, as early as 1870 introduced much concrete, readily available matter. Besides, he encouraged self-activity on the pupil's part and introduced other desirable features such as the more frequent use of the blackboard and the garnering of common words for analysis and use in a variety of sentence combinations. Familiar, interesting objects paved the way to self-expression and thence to reading.

The story as the language unit.—We have traveled far from the alphabetic method of teaching children to read.

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[1]*The Sentence Method of Teaching Reading, Writing, and Spelling.*

Some would say too far from the standpoint of length of language unit desirable in beginning lessons. However, childish interest in a story with an active motif is now relied upon to provide the initial spring for learning to read. In many of the accepted essentials that guide the teacher of reading today the pioneers[1] of the story-whole method have been justified of their pedagogic faith. From the beginning there was the unquestioned merit of careful organization of material and the equally careful thinking out of technique—the development, in a word, of what might truly be called a reading system. Oral and written symbols were correlated, the one assisting in the mastery of the other. Well-graded phonic exercises and dramatization, to recall but two of many devices, helped to make reading something more fruitful and certainly more interesting than it had been in the past.

Nevertheless, it was necessary that much more be known and done before the reading process could be free of unnatural, repetitious drill upon sentence parts. Practice drill must be more intimately related to meaningful content; content must be arranged in varying thought units according to the capacity and the attainment of pupils. These threads of method are nowadays of the very warp and woof of the pattern of our best practice in teaching pupils to read.

Present-day systems of reading.—The better reading systems in current use, as has been suggested, are largely composite or eclectic, that is, they incorporate the best features of both the synthetic and the analytic methods with emphasis now on this feature, now on that. Word mastery and necessarily word analysis, phonically and

[1]Miss Margaret McCloskey of Newark, New Jersey, the most prominent among them.

phonetically,[1] are not neglected even though the sentence-unit may be stressed in teaching procedure. In fact, it is becoming evident that the pendulum is swinging back to a more normal position in the estimate placed upon word mastery. Too often it has been found that in grasping the thought of the larger language units, such as the sentence, the child has developed a slipshod attitude toward the worth of the individual word. And, as we know, it is important in efficient reading that word values be discriminated.

Any one of a score or more of reading systems will be seen to rest on the new psychology of childhood and, in particular, on that teaching of the new psychology which emphasizes (a) the active principle in all learning—the pupil learning through his own experience and reactions; (b) the individual differences in pupils' capacities for learning—no two children being alike and no two progressing at the same rate to the same goal; (c) the powerful influence of a genuine interest in the meaning and purpose of an activity upon the learning process; and (d) the satisfying results of meaningful effort definitely organized toward a specific end and zestfully put forth with confidence and right feeling.

Among the other characteristics of a modern system may be briefly mentioned (a) beautiful, well-made books—a delight to the eye and a pleasure to the touch; (b) thoughtfully graded material, abundantly varied, intelligently written, and, as far as practicable, specifically prepared for the age and mental level of the pupil; and (c) very often two parallel sets of books, one a basal set for regularly planned instruction during class periods,

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[1]See page 153 for a note on distinction between phonics and phonetics.

another for library period use with different content from that of the basal book but in language of no greater difficulty.

Three Pedagogic Periods in the Teaching of Reading

In the prevailing present-day reading program three pedagogic periods are distinguishable, namely: (a) the beginning grades, (b) the middle or intermediate grades, and (c) the upper or junior high school grades. An explanatory word should be offered of each of these periods.

The beginning grades.—In the beginning grades the problem may be considered in three stages: (1) the preparatory, (2) the initial, and (3) the rapid progress stage.

The preparatory stage—the "period of preparation for reading."[1]—This is the time before the pupil reads a book. It properly includes the years before the child enters upon formal school work. These years have been spent at home, possibly at a private nursery school for the littlest tots, or in a private or public kindergarten, as well as in the first-grade classroom during the beginning weeks. Reading during this earliest stage provides opportunity for story-telling and the free, informal reproduction of stories by the children, for simple dramatization, and for such directed, purposeful activities as dancing, games, and other forms of organized play. All of this work will be planned to bring in, pleasurably and meaningfully, well selected sight words to become the child's basic printed vocabulary. From these sight words there will be separated certain phonograms with the help of which new words

[1]See the *Twenty-Fourth Yearbook*, Chapter III—"A Modern Program of Reading Instruction for the Grades and the High School."

will be acquired through blending with various initial or final consonants.

The initial stage—"the time for beginning reading instruction."[1]—This is the period when the child uses a small clothbound book called a primer—or, perhaps before this, a flexibly bound pre-primer booklet—to be followed by a first reader later in the year. These earliest reading texts of simple, brief, highly interesting stories and verse, attractively illustrated in black and white or in colors, with appropriate practice exercises for word-mastery, provide the means of growth in reading independence and power.

The rapid progress stage—"the period of rapid progress in fundamental attitudes, habits, and skills."[2]—Fluent, accurate oral reading and rapid, efficient silent reading are now the principal objectives to be attained. By the close of this stage, which covers the second and third years of school, the normal child should show marked improvement in reading. To put it differently: If for some reason a pupil were obliged to leave school at the end of this rapid progress stage of reading, he should be able to "carry on" by himself. It is presumed that the fundamental attitudes and the essential reading habits will have been established. The child's skill in attacking new words will now be reasonably sure and correct.

The middle grades.—"The period of wide reading to extend and enrich experience and to cultivate important reading attitudes, habits, and tastes"[3] is a most vital time in the pupil's reading life. It embraces the critical fourth, fifth, and sixth years during which most of the subject

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[1]See the *Twenty-Fourth Yearbook*, Chapter III, "A Modern Program of Reading Instruction for the Grades and High School."

[2]*Twenty-Fourth Yearbook*, page 25.

[3]*Ibid.*

matter in the elementary school must be taught. Sound reading attitudes and thoroughly established worth-while habits, with skillful, easy interpretation of varied material, should mark the child's normal progress through this period. In these intermediate years between the beginning and the upper or junior high school grades the pupil's experience is broadened, his tastes are enriched through widely diversified reading matter, and his study habits are built on probably permanent foundations.

This is also the period of special, definite, and useful silent reading. The pupil is taught to look for the central idea and the major thought-units of a passage, in history, let us say, or in geography. He is instructed in efficient ways and means of study. During this period, silent reading becomes a form of study. The habit of collateral reading, intensive for reference and extensive for broadening the background of some specific topic in hand, should be established and made a part of the child's scholarly equipment. Besides improvement in comprehension there will come increased speed through practice definitely planned and progressively carried to ever-enlarging success.

Though silent reading may seem at times to be the dominant interest, oral reading should not be neglected. Greater ease and fluency will be important goals in oral rendition, and intelligent expression before an interested audience will be an important end in view. One use of oral reading in these middle grades will be, for example, the proving of assertions made after the silent reading of, say, some piece of expository writing. One use of silent reading may well be, to give a special instance, the rereading of a piece of beautiful prose or verse in order the better to get its meaning and to elicit its finer values so

that a second oral rendering may the more deeply impress an audience with its significance and worth.

The junior (and senior) high schools.—All the school years after the sixth constitute "the period of refinement of specific reading attitudes, habits, and tastes."[1] In many schools the elementary grades end with the close of the sixth year. Though as early as the fifth or sixth grade the work may have been departmentalized according to subject-groups, it will be found to have been very generally so in the seventh, eighth, ninth, and subsequent years. It is hoped that the fundamental reading skills will by this time have been firmly rooted and grounded in a variety of useful ways. Normally, these skills will have spelled efficiency to a greater or less extent. But efficiency may be gained at the expense of refinement. The little things have possibly been sacrificed for the larger. The time has now arrived to gather up the fragments, so to speak, that nothing be lost.

The teacher of reading in the junior and senior high school grades strives, therefore, to guide her pupils (a) in silent reading, to a more discriminating taste in the selection of reading matter, a firmer grasp of its meaning with attention to finer, more delicate shades of interpretation, improved speed, and a more efficient handling of reference works; and (b) in oral reading, to a more refined expression, a more discriminating taste in subject selection, and a deeper feeling for the special value of the spoken word as a means to the interpretation of the printed page.

Review.—In order that all children might be able to read, mass education through the establishment of schools for the common people was inevitable. The change from

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[1]*Twenty-Fourth Yearbook*, page 25.

individual or small-group instruction to the larger-class instruction meant the reorganization of educational methods. In the United States, uppermost in the development of methodology has been the special problem of how to teach all children to read with speed and comprehension, efficiency and zeal, in the belief that literacy is the cornerstone of public opinion.

Generally speaking, the attempts at solving this problem of teaching children to read have been the synthetic, or the building up of words from letters or from sounds, and the analytic, or the breaking up of sentences into phrases and words, and the words, in turn, into phonograms, that is to say, into vowel-consonant or consonant-vowel combinations, such as *-ing* in *sing*, or *le-* in *let*. Since these phonograms are useful in forming other words it has become characteristic of present-day methodology to combine the older synthetic with the newer analytic method. To supplement this basic analytic-synthetic technique teachers today employ phonics and phonetics, dramatization, illustrative material of many kinds, and other special means to assist the learner in his efforts to read.

There are many reading systems in current use. More and more they are becoming not only composite or eclectic in their organization of material and adoption of methods, but also psychologically better founded.

The books we give children to read in our day are far more worthy examples of the printer's art than any in times past. These books are graded to meet the requirements of the three important pedagogic periods according to which the reading process program may be arranged, namely, the beginning grades, when the child first learns to use printed symbols to interpret thought, the middle or

intermediate grades, when the child widens his reading experience, and the upper or junior high school grades, when the child refines his reading habits.

STUDY PROBLEMS

A. Discussion Topics

1. Reading is more important than the radio or any other recent development in communications.

2. Mass education has led to widespread conservatism.

3. Despite all that may be said for the modern analytic-synthetic methods of teaching children to read, young people did learn by the alphabet method, after all.

4. A single reading system adopted countrywide would tend to stabilize our schools and make for progress.

5. Present-day teaching of reading makes the process altogether too easy for the child. Hard work and more effort are to be preferred to interest.

B. Group Research Topics

1. "One authority says that the child can get from the printed page only what he brings to it. This is a very true statement, for in a fifth-grade class in the school where I was a student-teacher, the children started to read a story about flowers. The teacher asked a little girl what color a rose was, and she said 'blue.' By further questioning, the teacher found that the children knew nothing about the color, size, or shape of any of the flowers, and the children really did not get anything out of the lesson because they had nothing to put into it." —*From a student-teacher's report.* After visits to several classrooms a report may be made upon background conditions such as indicated in this excerpt and upon how the textbooks used help remedy the situation.

2. A comparison of one or more grade readers of several systems in current use, with the ideas expressed in this chapter as the basis of the comparison. Plus and minus points should be tabulated.

3. A survey of reading methods used in several schools.

Points treated in this chapter should form the basis of this survey.

4. A report upon the progress made by children in several schools using different reading systems. The class teachers should be consulted; statistics from tests and promotion lists may be utilized. As far as possible, visits should be made to classrooms, and notes made.

C. INDIVIDUAL RESEARCH TOPICS

1. A study of one's own reading tastes among the selections included in any school reader in common use. Interest in the matter read, ease of interpretation, and variety should be considered. Note should be made of the order of preference, and comparison made with the order of preference of some child or children of the grade in mind.

2. A comparison of a Ward or a McCloskey reader with a modern reader. The matter of this chapter should be the basis of this work.

3. A review of Chapter IV, "The History of Reading Methods and Texts," in HUEY'S *The History and Pedagogy of Reading.*

4. A study of the reading preferences of a class of junior high school pupils so far as long and short literary masterpieces, as well as factual and imaginative matter, are concerned. A note may be made upon how far the material provided measures up to the pupils' preferences.

5. A review of the teachers' manual of some modern system of reading, with particular reference to points made in this chapter.

6. A personal survey of one's own reading during the past year. A comparison should be made between the emphasis on poetry and prose, fiction and drama, factual and imaginative matter in one's own reading, and the emphasis on each of these types of reading in some reading text in current use.

7. A survey of the reading of a group of adults, similar to that suggested under 6, above.

8. A summary report of Chapter IV, "Types of Excellent Literature within Children's Interests" in LEONARD'S *Essential Principles of Teaching Reading and Literature.*

9. A report upon Chapter III, "A Modern Program of Reading Instruction for the Grades and the High School," in the *Twenty-Fourth Yearbook*.

10. A review of HENRY SUZZALLO'S *Our Faith in Education*.

D. THEME ASSIGNMENTS

1. The superiority of the newspaper to the ordinary school reader from the point of view of interest.

2. The supplementation of reading texts in my school.

3. Practical suggestions to a teacher who is obliged to use a time-honored but out-of-date reading system.

CHAPTER IV

THE PHYSIOLOGICAL ASPECT OF THE READING PROCESS

The main points of this chapter.—The two basic aspects of the reading process are the physiological and the psychological. That is to say, we read with our bodies as well as with our minds. Both the physiological and the psychological aspects are exceedingly complex. The present chapter seeks to explain, in particular, the nature of eye-movements and the fundamental difference between oral and silent reading.

Although the results of modern investigation are still in many cases inconclusive and hence tentative, they have completely changed our conception of what it means to read a line of print and have obliged us thoroughly to revise our methods of teaching pupils to advance their intellectual and emotional lives through the reading art.

The use of auditory, visual, and motor senses in reading.—It is in the field of the visual and motor senses that the physiological basis of reading principally rests. The adverb "principally" is used advisedly for, although the other senses are clearly basic to the reading process, the auditory also bears a very helpful part. Teachers too frequently ignore the influence of the aural mechanism, often crediting poor reading to defective eyesight when it should really be to defective hearing. The discrimination of the sounds that make up a word orally rendered, the associa-

tion of spoken words with printed symbols, and the following of directions, are all dependent upon the auditory sense.[1]

It is, however, the visual and motor senses that are our chief concern in the specific problems of reading. The movements of the eyes and of the eye-muscles, the accompanying movements of the muscles of the head and neck, the movements of the throat, the tongue, and the speech organs are all activities which the teacher of reading must take into particular account in her classroom work.

Investigations of the physiological basis of reading.—Studies in the physiology of reading date back at least half a century. It is approximately fifty years since the French investigator, Professor Émile Javal, mirrored[2] the movements of the eye in reading and helped reveal the nature of its movements across a page.[3] Later research students, in Germany and in America, have refined the earlier method and added greatly to the pioneer discoveries. It was, for instance, an American student, Dr. Raymond Dodge, who first developed the means of photographically recording eye-movements, and it was another, Dr. Walter F. Dearborn, who first employed the photographic device in the study of the phenomena of reading. Since then—that is, some twenty-five years ago—many elaborate studies[4] have been conducted, the most fundamental result of which has been the realization

[1]See pages 94-95.

[2]Somewhat similarly, the student may make his own observation of eye-movements by watching another person's eyes in a mirror placed on a page of this book opposite the one which he is reading.

[3]Lamare was also an early observer of the true movements of the eye.

[4]Some of the more important of these studies will be cited from time to time in the footnotes and the study problems.

on the part of teachers and administrators that the reading process is not a general activity but a composite of many specific activities both of mind and of body.

Five influential discoveries have been the following: (a) fixation pauses, (b) interfixation movements, (c) regressive movements, (d) eye-voice span, and (e) the relation of inner speech or vocalization to reading.

Fixation pauses.—Contrary perhaps to one's hasty conclusion one reads not by smooth sweeps as the eyes pass across the line of a printed page but by rhythmical leaps or jerks. The swift movements of the eyes are interrupted at brief moments of pause or rest. The words "pause" and "rest" do not imply that the eyes are ever entirely still during the act of reading for they are not. There is always some movement even if it is but infinitesimal.

Since it is at the points of exposure, when the eyes fixate the matter before them, that images are recorded on the sensitive retina of the eye, recognition of words can take place only at these moments of fixation. The fundamental importance of the fixation pauses in the reading process is manifest.

The number of fixation pauses that the eyes make is estimated to be from four to fourteen to a line in normal, mature reading. The eyes travel so fast from left to right that the pauses take up from twelve-thirteenths to twenty-three twenty-fourths of the reading time.[1] With very young readers the number of fixation pauses may be far greater. Pupils in the first year have been found to approximate 17.05 pauses per line. Training has decreased this number from a high of 18.6 in the first half of the

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[1]DODGE's "An Experimental Study of Visual Fixation."

beginning year to a low of 15.5 in the second half, and from a high of 10.7 in the second year to a low of 8.9 in the third. It is also to be noted that oral reading of a passage usually requires more frequent pauses than silent reading of the same material.

Duration as well as number of pauses varies greatly with the individual. While a person who pauses less often is likely to read more rapidly, his speed may be retarded by longer duration. Though authorities differ, as they do in the matter of number of pauses, it is clear that in oral reading the length of pause is longer than in silent reading. One estimate[1] puts the average pause for the elementary pupils studied as long as .398 of a second for oral reading and as short as .314 of a second for silent reading. The range in this matter is even more marked, the longest (for oral reading) being .524 of a second and the shortest (for silent reading) being .264 of a second.

The pedagogic importance of the discovery of eye-fixations, or fixation pauses, lies in the fact that the field of vision is practically unalterable by training though it is possible greatly to increase the span of recognition, that is, the number of words mentally taken in at a single glance or fixation.

Interfixation movements.—These movements have been implicit in the foregoing discussion of fixation pauses. Marvelous as has been the revelation of investigators in the determination of the number and the duration of the stopping stages of the eyes in their progress across a page, the swiftness of the eyes in their sweeps from point to point is no less marvelous. Short as the pauses are, these interfixation movements are still shorter, lasting

[1] W. A. Schmidt's "An Experimental Study in the Psychology of Reading."

probably the merest fraction of a second. No reading is done while the eyes move interfixationwise. Training may reduce the time between fixation points and thus improve the speed of reading.

Regressive movements.—These are backward movements which the eyes tend to make in reading, with irregular frequency depending largely upon the difficulty of the material read. They are not the return sweeps that are made when the eyes go back from the right side of the page to the left. The time for the regressive movements varies for individuals just as do all the other factors involved in eye-movements. Estimates seem to indicate that beginning pupils may show from 5.1 backward glances in the first half of the first year to 4.0 in the second half. In the second year these regressions may be as few as 2.3, and in the third year but 1.8.[1] Again, too, practice may reduce their number. Investigation shows that regressive movements are more numerous in oral than in silent reading.

Eye-voice span.[2]—In oral reading the eyes rest at a point somewhat to the right of the particular words being read. The distance between these two points is known as the eye-voice or eye-perception span. A pupil who reads words merely, perhaps haltingly, too, and therefore more or less unintelligibly, has very probably a rather narrow eye-voice span. Maturity in reading tends to widen this span greatly, the variation extending possibly from zero to approximately two words in the middle grades and

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[1]The regressive movements here described differ from the normal regression common with mature readers, which frequently accompanies the wide span of material such readers are capable of sensing.

[2]Consult G. T. Buswell's "An Experimental Study of the Eye-Voice Span in Reading."

to as many as eight words in later years. The good reader in every grade is noted for his attainment in this respect, but its development is irregular from period to period in the child's school life.

Under normal conditions, as the reader looks on the page of this book, his eyes are able to see with especial

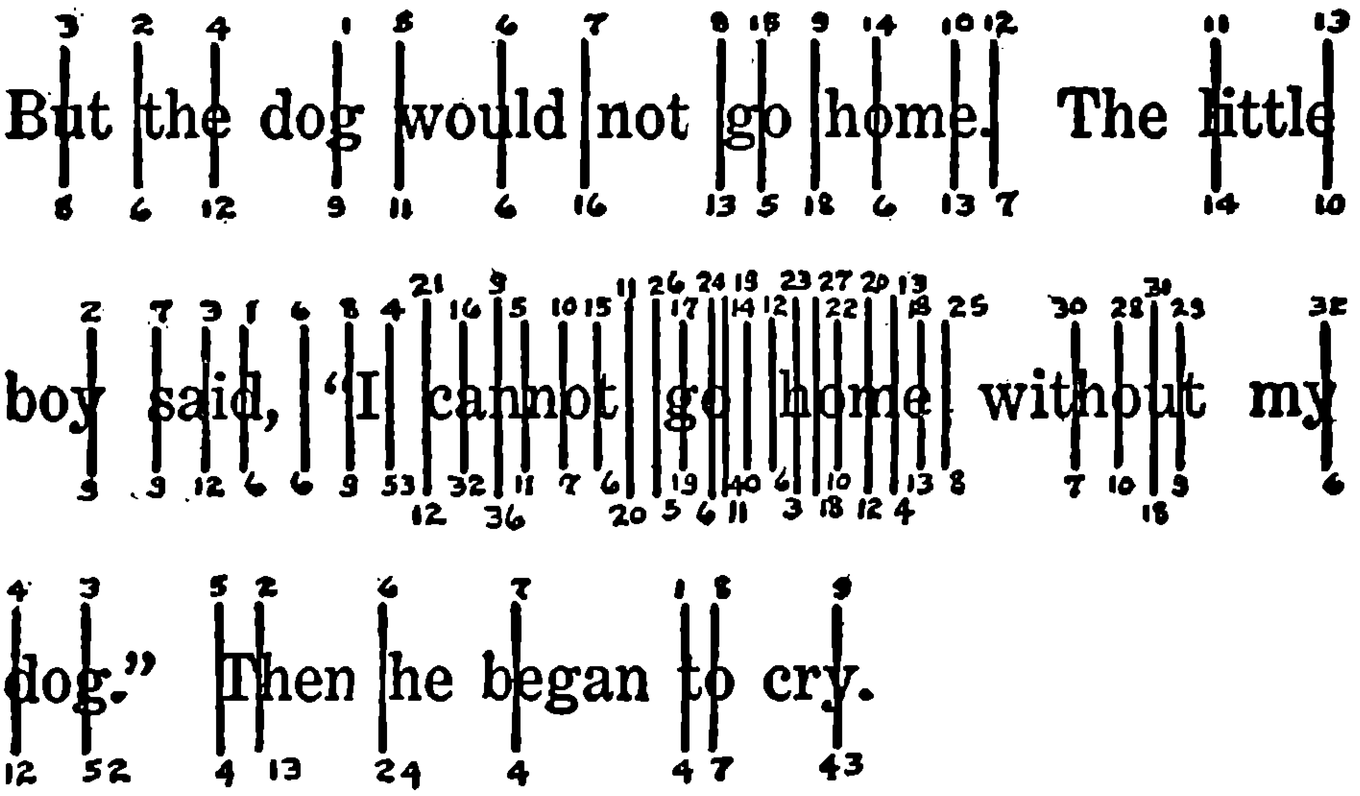

FIGURE 3. PHOTOGRAPHIC RECORD OF EYE-MOVEMENTS OF A POOR READER (After Buswell)[1]

clearness hardly more than from three to five or six letters, the range of visibility decreasing to the outer edge of a space perhaps forty-five letters in extent. Beyond these letters there is relative indistinctness. Interest especially attaches to these facts when one realizes the further fact that one's eyes may rest on words in advance of the beginning words in a line. To put it differently: though they are still in the zone of indistinct vision, the coming phrase and punctuation mark may yet be within the realm of a reader's consciousness. This phenomenon

[1]This figure and that on page 54 are taken by permission from G. T. BUSWELL's "Fundamental Reading Habits: A Study of Their Development," Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 21, University of Chicago Press.

tends to reduce the number of fixation pauses and thus to improve not only one's speed in reading but also one's comprehension and therefore expression.

In untechnical language, the eye-voice span is a measure of the grasp of meaning of phrase or word just ahead of

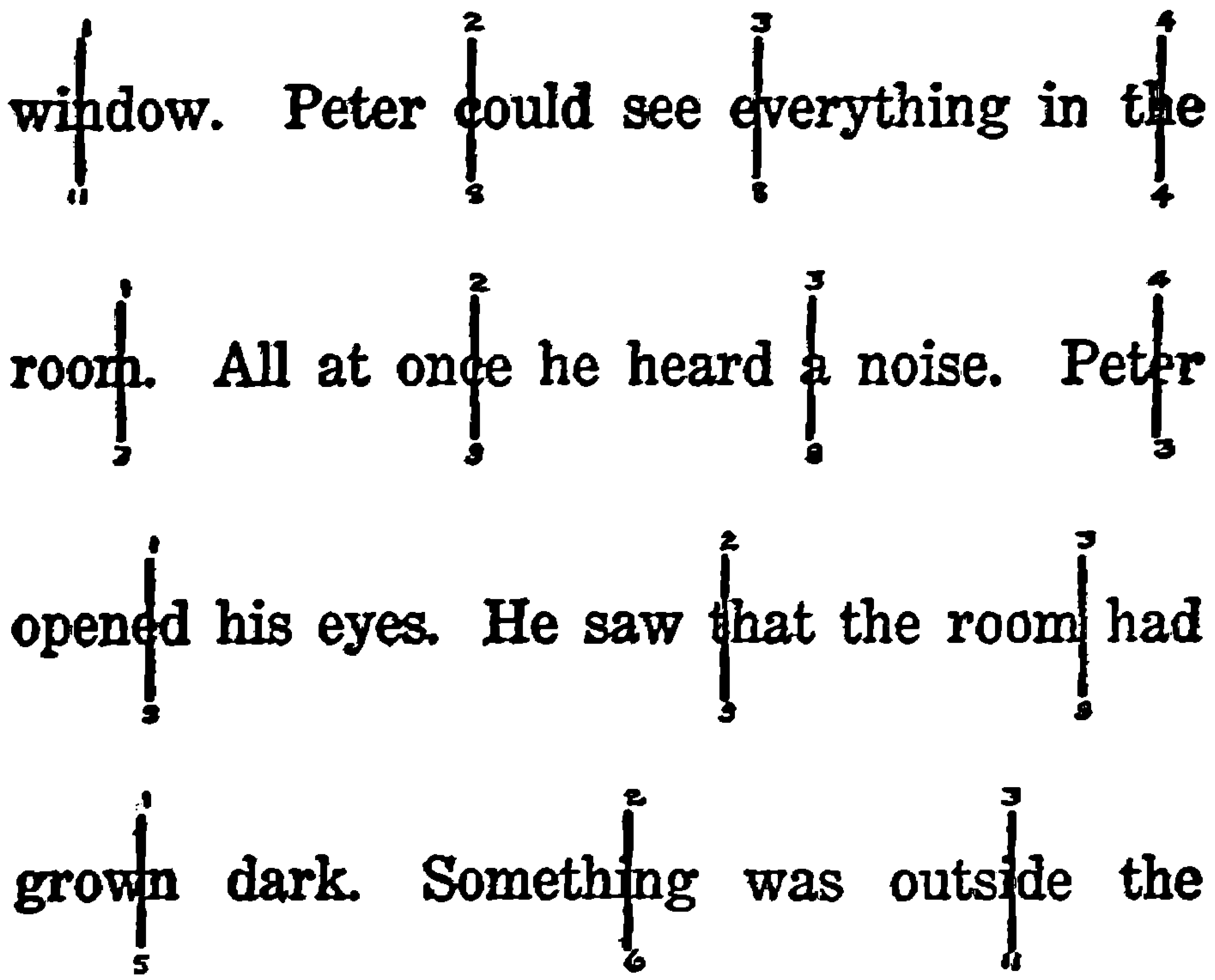

FIGURE 4. PHOTOGRAPHIC RECORD OF EYE-MOVEMENTS OF A GOOD READER (After Buswell)

the reader's eyes as they fall on the page before him. If it were not for one's ability to take in the matter immediately ahead for a more or less extended distance one would frequently be at a loss to read with the proper word, phrase, and sentence stress, and would thus fail to interpret the author's thought aright. For example, the presence of such words as *conduct*, *refuse*, *invalid* in a context will tend to change one's phrasing in reading, or at least require a knowledge of how these words are used before they may

be read with accuracy. It is the eye-perception span that to no small degree enables one to read aloud with expression.

Fortunately for teacher and pupils the eye-voice span may be materially improved through practice, and both speed and comprehension bettered. In all grades provision should, therefore, be made for supplementary reading matter of interesting content but with relatively few language difficulties. Furthermore, much rapid-reading opportunity under time-limit should be afforded. Exercises in the quick reading of cards—flashing, in rapid succession, increasingly long word-groups based on already familiar reading content—will be very helpful in widening the eye-perception span. Indeed, when this span is too narrow it is probably due to the omission of just such practice-drill in the beginning grades.

The relation of inner speech or vocalization to reading.—In silent reading one is usually unconscious of physical activity on the throat or vocal cords, though one's lips may move as if to form the words for oral rendition. This phenomenon is known by various names—inner speech, vocalization, or simply, but less accurately, lip-movement. When one considers how long a period elapses before a child enters school and how much he is bound to speak and often to read aloud after he has entered, it is not surprising that his vocal apparatus is likely to respond as if he were going to say the words. There are thus several reasons for the phenomenon of inner speech.

It is well for teachers to remember the following facts in this connection: (1) Inner speech tends to retard the rate of silent reading. (2) Experiment[1] has shown that

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[1]See GATES's *The Improvement of Reading*, page 230.

children can learn to read without such articulatory response. (3) Remedial measures may be taken, and should be, with confidence that good results will follow.

In attempting to reduce inner speech the teacher should not expect complete elimination of this defect. She should provide adequate, interesting reading matter and, informing the pupils of their difficulty, instruct them as to the desirability and the possibility of overcoming it. Two simple rules for them to observe may be briefly stated: (1) Control, especially, the tongue and lips (the speech mechanism). (2) Make an effort to read rapidly without thinking of how the words sound. While there may be some loss of comprehension through such practice there may be compensation in other special exercises.

Oral reading a form of physical response rather than a thought-getting act.—In a sense oral reading may be considered as not reading at all but merely one of a number of possible forms of physical reaction to the stimuli of printed symbols. The sign, "Stop! Look! Listen!", for example, may evoke very different reactions in this person and in that. Speech may be the response, it is true, but so also may be a nod of the head or any one of several other motor activities. In oral reading—that is, in the oral rendition of what the eye and the mind perceive —the speech centers and speech organs are called into play as in silent reading they are not necessarily. The word *necessarily* is used since, as we have learned, there are likely to be rudimentary physical accompaniments of the silent reading process in the form of inner speech or vocalization.

Efficient silent reading is fundamental to expressive oral reading, for the reader is obliged to understand the meaning of a passage before he may accurately and feelingly

render it aloud with satisfaction to himself or with pleasure and benefit to his audience. On the other hand, oral rendition oftentimes assists interpretation. The very sound of a word or of a sentence may assist or improve our understanding of its meaning. For many persons, silent reading without the more or less conscious physical accompaniment of the speech organs is decidedly difficult if not impossible. Hence, in teaching reading, teachers are advised (1) to have practice exercises closely associated with meaningful content,[1] and (2) to arrange the actual reading lessons so that oral reading may supplement silent reading, or vice versa.

Review.—The nature of the reading process is twofold: part physiological, part mental or psychological. The physiological aspect rests principally in the field of the visual and motor senses although the auditory also plays an important part. For at least a half-century scientific investigation of this phase of the nature of reading has been revealing its importance. It has been discovered that the eye in reading performs certain definite functions and makes certain more or less regular movements. Among these functions and movements the most significant is the fixing of images on the sensitive retina during the moments of pause or rest which occur as the eye moves rhythmically across a page of print. It is at such fixation points that reading takes place. While the field of vision varies with individuals it is probably limited by nature. The span of recognition, that is, the space or extent of words which the mind may take in as the eye pauses on its way, varies not only with the individual but also in response to training. The teacher should remember the

[1]See pages 138–139.

fundamental difference between oral and silent reading: Oral reading is a form of physical response rather than primarily a thought-getting process, and therefore will require special lessons to secure satisfactory results; silent reading is a thought-getting activity, basic to expressive oral reading.

STUDY PROBLEMS

A. Discussion Topics

1. Our physical eye plays a fundamental part in the reading process.

2. General good health has as much to do with our reading as has almost anything else.

3. A dull pupil may not be stupid but, rather, physically below par.

4. A pupil's physical well-being bears a close relation to his mental ability, as this ability is registered in reading performance.

5. Reading should be postponed until a child is eight or nine or perhaps even ten years old. See, for example, La Rue's *The Child Mind and the Common Branches*, pages 282–283; 295–297.

B. Group Research Topics

1. A review of specific references to the physiological basis of reading as these may be found in the teachers' manuals of five or six modern reading systems.

2. A study of the relation between the physiological condition of school children in a given grade or grade group and their reading ability. The help of class teachers and of school reports will be needed.

3. A report upon a personal study of children in students' own homes to determine the connection between reading progress and eye-movements.

4. A class report upon students' personal reading abilities and the possible effect of physiological condition upon reading progress. Inner speech may enter as an important factor here.

5. A study of students' relative abilities in oral and silent reading.

C. Individual Research Topics

1. A review of Smith's *The Reading Process*, Chapter VI, "Analysis of the Reading Process through an Investigation of Eye Movement."

2. A summary of the thought of O'Brien in his *Reading: Its Psychology and Pedagogy*, Chapter II, "Comparison of Silent and Oral Reading."

3. An investigation of oral reading abilities of a small group of children—either bright, normal, or dull, or one of each type. A tabulation of their abilities in pronunciation, enunciation, phrasing, pitch, volume, and expressiveness. A summary of conclusions of reasons for the levels of abilities discovered.

4. A report upon the discussion of the physiological basis of reading as it may be found in any one of the authorities cited in this chapter or in the bibliography.

5. A personal study of one's own inner speech.

6. A personal study of one's own eye-voice span.

7. A personal study of one's own fixation pauses, interfixation movements, and regressive movements.

[Note: In each of these last three exercises consideration should be given different kinds of reading content and subjects of varying degrees of difficulty.]

D. Theme Assignments

1. The proper physical conditions of a schoolroom during a reading lesson.

2. A personal experience in eye-span growth.

3. How one may curb one's habit of inner speech.

4. Valid reasons for beginning the teaching of reading not too early in a child's life.

5. Oral reading as an aid to silent reading.

6. The relation between time of day for reading lessons and the physiological basis of the reading process.

CHAPTER V

THE RELATION OF PSYCHOLOGY TO THE READING PROCESS

The main points of this chapter.—The mind is intimately associated with the body in the process of reading. The problem of this chapter is to describe the factors involved in this association and to explain how the mind functions in the activity or form of human behavior known as reading. The following points will be considered:

1. The complexity of the psychological aspect of reading.
2. Memory and imagination as aids in reading.
3. The recognition or perception of words.
4. The motor sense in oral and silent reading.
5. The comprehension of thought-wholes.
6. The part interest plays in learning-to-read activities.
7. Attention and its relation to reading.
8. Reading and original thinking.
9. Reading and the emotions.

The complexity of the psychological aspect of reading.—The psychological aspect of reading is very far from being a unitary matter. Indeed, it is exceedingly complex. Despite much highly expert investigation and practice, it is still in many respects inexplicable.

When a little child's eyes light upon the printed page, close study reveals a wide variety of mental phenomena at

work. The motor activity of the ocular apparatus alone is not sufficient to bring meaning to the young reader's consciousness. The form of behavior called reading runs to greater depths than the physical nature of the one who reads. Although, for convenience, we shall consider the important elements in the psychology of reading separately, the student will bear in mind the fact that there is no real distinction into so many categories.

As the eye lights upon a page before it, stimuli are recorded upon the retina which forthwith transmits the image along the optic nerve to the visual centers of the brain. But meaning has not yet been established. Only a physical excitation has taken place. The person has seen something on a printed page but has not read it, for he has not recognized it unless he has been able to clothe it with meaning. His mind must "take it in." There must be memory of thoughts and experiences instantaneously aroused; there must be immediate association of ideas out of which imagination can weave a thought-whole. Besides the recognition of words, the memory of past experiences, that is, the reconstructive imagination, there must also be the motivating interest that will control genuine attention. Furthermore, one's past reading should have been provocative of original thinking which in turn will react upon one's future reading. The emotions, too, must come into play. Feelings have a large part in the correct interpretation of the printed page.

If the reader reads aloud, motor impulses will also be brought into action. The stimulation of the visual sense must be re-routed, so to speak, from the visual centers to the motor speech centers and thence to the articulatory apparatus—vocal cords, tongue, lips, and other parts of the speech mechanism. Finally, of course, this speech

mechanism must be set in motion along the established folkways of pronunciation, pitch, tone, and volume.

Individual differences.—Children bring to the classroom an inherited capacity of intellect and emotions, with an acquired background, all more or less rich and certainly most varied and complex. This native endowment and this background of life have a large, if not indeed a determining, influence upon the reading success or failure attained in and out of school. Physically, mentally, linguistically, and socially the pupils in any classroom represent a wide range of development, even to an amazing degree at times.

Let us illustrate by contrasting the reading possibilities of two types of school children. Child A, we shall say, has had rather generous opportunity for contacts with certain concrete situations. He has been reared in a household where "things are seen and talked about," where relatives and friends are interested in life beyond the physical needs of daily toil and sustenance. Child B quite obviously lacks environmental advantages. Upon inquiry, the teacher learns that Child A seems also to have inherited desirable tendencies while Child B has not. The connotation, that is, the range of meaning, of the mental concepts of these two pupils will be markedly different—how great or how small this difference it would be difficult, if not quite impossible, to predict.

Now, Child A and Child B meet in the same classroom and receive the same books to read. The class, let us assume, has been asked to read a story wherein barnyard fowl are the chief interest. For several years Child A has spent a few weeks each summer in the country. There he has seen, heard, heard of, perhaps even handled, many of the objects about which he is now called upon to read.

The chicken, the hen, the rooster, all are familiar to his consciousness. They are real because he has had visual, auditory, and possibly tactual sense contacts with them. These have been impressed upon those brain centers of his, whose service it is to record sensory images. He has also the memory of auditory symbols for the objects sensed—chicken, hen, rooster—and has likewise the imagination to reconstruct the scene he is to read about in his book. The important contact he must now make is a visual one with the printed symbols, or words, for the objects he already knows so well. He must learn to recognize these and other symbols, and to associate meanings therewith. For such a child, who has had the advantages of specific, concrete experience, the reading problem is worlds apart from that of his seatmate who has lived his whole young life in a crowded city and probably seldom, if ever, ventured farther than the small park a quarter of a mile away.

Little wonder that these two pupils pursue their reading journey with undeniably different prospects. Child A will read of the barnyard incidents rather glibly, gathering fruitage because he brings to his book an enriched memory, a lively imagination, and therefore a keen interest, while Child B will go through his lesson more or less listlessly, fumbling for meanings he is ill-prepared to glean.[1]

Memory and imagination.—The possession of memory and imagination spells maturity, which enters so largely as a factor in efficient reading. Since reading is interpretation, words, sentences, and paragraphs must be garbed with remembered or imaginatively constructed meaning as one's eyes pass across a printed page. It is not the

[1]See pages 8–11 for a brief general discussion of individual differences in pupils.

maturity of mere physical ability as noted in eye-movements, or, at least, not this alone. It is rather the maturity of a mind which through native capacity and past experience is capable of arousing[1] memories and associations to the end that the impulses registered in the visual centers of the brain are quickened and interpreted. Such images thus created help construct a reader's mental world. They fuse into larger meanings what the eye recognizes, "takes in," at the moments of fixation.

As a regular part of general reading procedure special provision must be made (a) for practice in experiencing meaningful printed symbols so that adequate memory impressions may be duly received along the neural tract or brain-path; (b) for sufficient drill to secure retention of these impressions; (c) for frequent opportunity to recall the impressions thus received and secured; and (d) for that satisfying or refreshing feeling which comes of a recognition of familiar images. In a word, the teacher should especially keep in mind the factors that make for effective recall, namely, the vividness and recency of the impression, the frequency of the experience, and the pupil's mind-set, that is, his mental receptivity, his expectancy of some visual sensation.

The imagination needs time to function well. Teachers who hurry through a reading lesson simply to "cover ground," as laid out in the grade syllabus and course of study, are in a fair way to deprive their pupils of sufficient opportunity to imagine or picture to themselves what they are reading about. They are keeping the children from an intellectual experience which should be of prime worth not only in increasing their efficiency in future reading but also in enriching their lives.

[1]As the illustration in the paragraphs above clearly shows.

The recognition or perception of words.—As every classroom teacher should make herself master of the results of modern scientific investigation in the field of eye-movements, so likewise should she study the phenomena of word recognition.

In everyday life we recognize this person or that, one thing or another, in various ways. So do we recognize words on a written or printed page. In this, young beginners differ somewhat from their elders, for experience and inexperience take separate courses. It may be the general appearance, the form, or the outline of a word that attracts a child—its length, or some particular letter or combination of letters. Possibly, it is just the first part of the word, less likely the middle, and least likely the end of it. It may be that "loop letters" or "tail letters" more particularly fascinate the beginning pupil. At any rate, there will be some key or clue to the recognition of a new word or an old one. Repeated contact with printed matter will probably tend to isolate in the child's consciousness certain of these distinguishing characteristics. Prior experience with wooden blocks, for instance, playthings highly colored with capital letters and associated with the names of animals or familiar objects, may determine the nature of the first words in one's reading vocabulary.

Furthermore, the little child early learns the value of guessing in his efforts at word-mastery. That which he has already acquired by "hit-and-miss" methods leads him to an assumption of knowledge of other more or less similar words. Even adults are often prone to do this. We all substitute this word for that, now and again, some accurately, some hardly so, some partially, some completely. The word's general appearance will have most

to do with this form of recognition. The context of words, that is, their surroundings in a phrase or in a sentence, will also affect our guessing intelligently.

Let us consider some of the disadvantages of such undirected learning on the part of children.

Immature word recognition, as seen in the detection of some more or less trivial though attractive characteristic, may lead to no end of confusion with many of our English words. Take *coal* and *cold*, for example. Superficially, they have much in common, but in meaning they are, of course, utterly unlike. Even when contextually associated they may yet be confused through superficial similarity. Directed effort will tend to minimize such a difficulty and result in greater speed and more accurate comprehension. It is, therefore, wise practice for teachers to point out frequently recurring distinctions and likenesses, and afford pupils adequate opportunity to observe them. In this way children will be able to continue perceiving words through their general appearance while at the same time advancing a step beyond to the identification of significant parts.

Again, too much guessing may lead to mental slovenliness —to "taking a chance," an effortless chance. Attention must be made active in the learning process, for worthy direction of attention is of prime importance. Let a child guess with no guidance from his teacher and he may persist in confusing *has* and *had*, for instance, thus very possibly missing the meaning of an entire passage. Undesirable habits not easy to break in later life may only too easily be formed.

Once more, in the matter of vizualization without vocal response, much time may be wasted in undirected efforts. It would be to the advantage of pupils to have appropriate

exercises so prepared that attention may be directed to useful parts of words—to syllables, for example, or phonograms.[1] Through practice in the pronunciation of words and parts of words taken from meaningful content, auditory sense impressions will be the more readily acquired and materially helpful in the reading process.

Three ways of directing learning to read.—*By means of the alphabet.*—Although no one desires the return of the alphabet to its age-old priority in the process of learning to read, there is a use to which one's ABC's may reasonably be put, a use which may not fairly be questioned. A child's acquaintance with the alphabet may be, at least, a means of preventing, or minimizing, much of the confusion that arises from too hasty, undirected word-recognition. To be sure, it ought not to be inferred that learning the mere sequence of letters will be thus effective, but rather that the knowledge of letters in intimate association with meaningful words may furnish useful clues to ready recognition. Otherwise, the alphabet shares whatever value there may be in any extrinsic[2]—that is, unrelated—learning device.

By means of phonics and phonetics.—Elsewhere[3] in this book the question of phonics and phonetics will be treated in their practical relation to specific reading problems, such as the development of vocabulary in the beginning years, particularly. In the present chapter we shall consider simply the utility of such a learning tool in the recognition of words. Very commonly, for one pur-

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[1]See pages 36 and 154 for definition of this term.

[2]See page 139 for brief treatment of the value of the intrinsic device. Consult GATES's *New Methods in Primary Reading*, pages 38–40, for a discussion of *intrinsic* and *extrinsic* devices.

[3]See pages 133 ff. and 186.

pose or another, some teaching of phonics will be found in our schools. If it were not for the obviously unphonetic character of a multitude of English words, and of the variability of the sounds that we usually associate with words and parts of words, the matter might be considered an issue pedagogically closed in favor of phonetics. The limitations of the method, however, are clear, or should be. Apart from meaningful context the phonetic elements may have little greater value than the alphabet distinct from words. The *Twenty-Fourth Yearbook*[1], while approving the wisdom of the adoption of some definite system of phonetic training—and, of course, all practical teachers appreciate the worth of associating sound and sight symbols—strongly recommends the careful integration of such training with a reading program rich in content. Furthermore, among other things, this very representative authority stands firmly for simplicity in early phonetic teaching and advocates awaiting the time when thought-getting has been established as a habit, when a number of sight words[2] have been acquired and the more or less obvious similarities and differences in words recognized. Accuracy in pronunciation and clearness in enunciation are definite objectives. Phonetic units should be not merely parts of words but, preferably, whole words.

By means of practice in contextual arrangement.—The contextual recognition of words, if guided aright, may serve a very useful end. A pupil recognizes words more quickly and more accurately when they are presented in meaningful content graded according to the learner's attainment-level. We know that words differ in meaning depending

[1]Pages 89–91.

[2]See pages 40, 65 ff., 115, and 153–154 of our text.

upon the phrase, the sentence, or the paragraph in which they may be placed. The building up of word consciousness so that the word and the sentence, and the paragraph, too, contribute meaning to one another is among the major tasks of the teacher of children in reading. The accompanying tables[1] are significant.

TABLE I.—THE AVERAGE READING TIME IN SECONDS PER WORD FOR CHILDREN FROM NINE TO TWELVE YEARS OF AGE.

	PARAGRAPHS	SENTENCES	PHRASES	WORDS
MEAN	.429	.456	.466	.660
M. V.	.047	.047	.041	.078

TABLE II.—COMPARISON IN PERCENTAGES OF THE QUICKNESS OF CHILDREN IN READING FOUR ARRANGEMENTS OF WORDS, USING THE SPEED OF READING THE PARAGRAPH AS A STANDARD.

PARAGRAPH	SENTENCES	PHRASES	WORDS
100	94	92	65

[NOTE: "The children were practised individually, each child being given ten trials, one trial each day for ten days. The material was printed in good, clear, ten-point type and the reading was done orally at a maximum rate. The time of each reading was taken by means of a stop-watch. In case a child hesitated unduly on a word, he was prompted by the experimenter. This difficulty, however, seldom occurred and gradually disappeared after a few trials ."[2]]

The importance of context in the perceptual process has also been demonstrated. Used as a standard, that is, 100 per cent, an amount which had been read in paragraph

[1]From FRANCIS M. HAMILTON'S "The Perpetual Factors in Reading—A Quantitative Study of the Psychological Processes Involved in Word Perception."

[2]*Ibid.*, page 13.

arrangement during a single eye-fixation, or eye-exposure. was found to be "taken in" on an average only 92 per cent as extensively when the arrangement was by phrases, and but 79 per cent when a miscellaneous arrangement obtained. In other words, from the classroom value standpoint, it may be confidently expected that a child who has the ability to grasp larger meanings—and, by the same token, a child who is afforded opportunity to read matter the larger import of which he can readily understand—will prove to be a young reader whose span of recognition shows steady growth in the two essential reading abilities, comprehension and speed. This whole matter bears a prime relation to the economy of learning and is to be contrasted with the older, wasteful, unpsychological synthetic reading methods.[1]

Pupils differ greatly in their span of recognition as they also differ, we recall, in their visual span. The difference between these two spans from the viewpoint of learning is of significance in the reading progress of a class. While extension of one's visual span is perhaps limited by nature, practice being found to have little or no effect upon it, such is not the case with the span of recognition, for here controlled and well directed practice will avail very much, indeed.

A further word is in point. The span of recognition varies not only with individual pupils but from time to time in the same pupil. Though improvement may continue to be indicated not only in speed but in width of recognition span as well, it is of especial value for the primary-grade teacher to appreciate the fact that the greatest development has been shown to take place before

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[1]See pages 30ff.

the pupil begins his fifth school year. For middle-grade teachers, and for teachers of the upper grades, too, of course, it is worthy of attention that their pupils should have reached a plateau in recognition ability and that any further advance will hardly appear before the close of the ninth year. Obviously, therefore, teachers of the lower grades should see to it that pupils attain their maximum growth in this particular before they proceed higher in school, while teachers of the upper grades should at least make sure that pupils maintain what they have already achieved. Sentences and paragraphs of graded difficulty may be put on the blackboard, or on large paper if this is used as a substitute, the children being encouraged to speed up their recognition of language units so that, at a single fixation, the extent of their mental grasp may be enlarged. Care should be taken that practice exercises of this sort be sufficiently frequent and numerous to keep pupils from falling back into older, less satisfactory habits. Direction and guidance should be preventive as well as constructive.

Recognition in oral and silent reading.—Since everybody finds so much to read, and since most of what one reads must be read silently, it is fortunate that the silent reader enjoys a far wider span of recognition than does the oral reader. As has been well stated,[1] "oral reading is controlled by speech units rather than divided into units of visual perception. The unit of speech is the word. In oral reading the eye moves from word to word, directing in this way the vocal apparatus as it utters each unit.

[1]By CHARLES H. JUDD in *Reading: Its Nature and Development*, page 21, and quoted by W. S. GRAY in "Summary of Investigations Relating to Reading," page 74. Quotation through the courtesy of the Department of Education of The University of Chicago.

In silent reading, on the other hand, the unit for the trained adult is wholly different. . If the mind can grasp a phrase, that becomes the unit governing fixation." Practice exercises skillfully prepared should prove beneficial to the young pupil in his efforts to improve the width of his span of recognition and of his eye-voice span.[1]

The motor sense in oral and in silent reading.—Besides the difference noted in the preceding paragraph, it is to be observed that in silent reading one stills one's motor impulses, as it were, one's mind and body functioning interpretatively very largely through the visual sense alone. Not that the motor sense or impulse is atrophied, for we are mindful of the phenomenon of the sub-vocal or inaudible accompaniment known as inner speech or vocalization, previously treated.[2] In silent reading, the speech organs simply fail to register articulate sounds. It is true that one's physical and psychical natures are closely attuned to each other. A child may be physically fatigued in silent reading as he may be, of course, in oral reading. This fact ought not to be lost sight of by the teacher when she plans her reading periods.

The comprehension of thought-wholes.—Not only are accurate word-mastery and ready ability to grasp more and more subject matter at a single eye-fixation necessary to make a proficient reader, but inherited characteristics, both physical and mental, emotional and spiritual, are likewise invaluable. There will be pupils who are reasonably capable of mastering single words but to whom any larger language-unit seems vague if, indeed, it is registered in consciousness at all. Ideas once gathered through

[1]See pages 50ff. and 89–90.

[2]See pages 55–56.

experience with concrete objects, or through prior reading, may not be associated with the ideas of new matter swiftly enough to produce satisfactory comprehension of what is read. And yet, such swift association is essential if there is to be accurate response or reaction to those fresh stimuli which have been physically received on the retina of the eye and transmitted to the visual centers of the brain. The trouble may lie in the fact that both at the focus of vision and somewhat to the right, though still within the reading area, the visible symbol has shaded off from the very distinct to the more or less indistinct. This factor of marginal visibility has an important bearing upon the perception of such meanings as are larger than the single word. It creates, as it were, a guide to what is to follow, and enables the mind to take in a greater thought-whole.

The student is not to assume that the brain is a mere receptacle from which images are sent to the mind—images which have been attracted by the physical apparatus without, and are awaiting, as it were, some key-word of recall to effect interpretation of what is being read. The mind, indeed, may even ignore images, and, in fact, it frequently does; it may react, apparently, altogether independently of them. Our mental tendencies, habituated as they are through much experience in the daily contacts of life or, vicariously, through previous reading activities, are sufficient to enable us to get the thought directly. There may be no need of the mind's summoning images of objects which words or letters or sounds represent. Interest itself may be adequate to stimulate the associative process. One may observe this phenomenon in the swift interpretation of some such expression as "Look out for the trains!" Instinctively, one reacts. A mere name or word, such as *Fire!* or *home*, may serve to repel or

attract, now in this way, again in that. The reaction will depend upon the person and the connotations born of his experience. The cognitive process may function immediately but differently as knowledge grows and life's contacts multiply.

The part interest plays in learning-to-read activities.—The implication of what has just been explained is manifestly very far-reaching for classroom method. To the extent that the teacher is able to enrich the lives of her pupils with deep and abiding experience, either real or vicarious, to the degree that she is resourceful enough to motivate the activities in which they participate, to such extent and degree will she have gone a long way toward fixing and developing serviceable and enduring reading habits. While meaning, so to speak, is a lubricant of the wheels of learning, interest is their driving power.

The source of interest.—Genuine interest arises from a consciousness of value for ourselves, a clear recognition that the things we are called upon to do or to enjoy are worth the doing, are worth while for us. Of course, a teacher may stimulate a false interest, if interest it may be truly termed. In such case, it is likely to be a transitory experience, with little to commend it from the standpoint of lasting good.

Paths to interest.—Various ways and means of evoking real interest will be indicated from time to time in the pages of this book. It is, therefore, unnecessary to mention them specifically here. Suffice it to suggest certain broad, general paths to interested reading, leaving details of method for later treatment.

Successful pupil reaction to well-planned teacher guidance.—Professor James taught long ago that habit formation depends in no small degree upon uninterrupted success in

performance. Now, reading, like character itself, is just a "bundle of habits", or better still, a "system of habits", so thoroughly integrated are the elements that go to its making. "Nothing succeeds like success" is an old saying. If not pressed too far, it is as true in classroom practice as anywhere.

One point especially to remember in successful accomplishment, and particularly in practice exercises, is the value of definite but kindly given foreknowledge of one's deficiency, coupled with a likewise definite and encouraging assurance that effort will bring its reward. Interest and understanding have a high degree of correlation. A child who doesn't know what it is all about will hardly appreciate a paragraph, however beautiful the thought expressed.

Another point to keep in mind is that specific direction as to ways and means of overcoming a defect already known to exist is essential to satisfying achievement. A right feeling, here as elsewhere, should permeate the classroom atmosphere and tend to reduce trivial difficulties to zero and larger ones to manageable proportions.

Interest on the teacher's part.—A second broad path to interested reading is that of interest on the teacher's part—not interest of the spurious sort, engaging for the time being but transitory and lacking in depth. If it is genuine, a teacher's zeal will have its effect on every pupil in her class.

To succeed, one must put forth effort, and that effort must be motivated by sympathy and enthusiasm. It must be actuated by an idea, the cognitive factor, and by an incentive, the emotional factor. Otherwise, it will too frequently work its way to listlessness. Discouragement and at least partial failure may be the net result.

For instance, practice drills, without verve or "snap" because they are only imperfectly understood, are so much time wasted. All such exercises should be vital parts of the learning process and should be planned and executed accordingly. Intimate connection between practice and meaningful content is essential.

Conviction of future usefulness of what is read.—A third pathway to interested reading experience is that of a conviction that the matter read is something to be used at other times and in other places. Isolation of a topic or subject read today from topics or subjects to be studied tomorrow will not contribute to a helpful association of ideas but rather to a confused or half-hearted response. For example, a pupil who is called upon to read "Paul Revere's Ride," "The Concord Hymn," or "Old Ironsides," should realize that he may find the poem useful in his history lesson. Interest in the poet's story and verse will not be less keen because of a possible factual application. Other illustrations will no doubt readily come to mind. The potential correlations between literature and geography, nature study, or any other school subject are numerous. Reading should not be so separated from recognized utility that it seems futile to the child.

Individualization of reading matter.—A fourth path should be that of individualization of reading, meeting, as far as practicable, the tastes of individual pupils. It is not to be presumed that an entire class will like poetry, or any single poem, not even if it is a masterpiece or one of the required selections for a given grade. Diversity of gifts will appear in a classroom as naturally as elsewhere. When reading matter is being selected, the temperamental peculiarities of pupils must be weighed in order that the

program of reading activities may be well balanced and that interest may be stimulated.

In the practice exercises scheduled to accompany these reading activities, individualization is likewise desirable. Otherwise, repetition will tend to defeat its own ends. Unwelcome reactions will be substituted for welcome reactions, which the teacher may later find it difficult to eliminate. The better pupils, who have different, though perhaps no marked, defects should not be asked to repeat and repeat with their classmates who may have various, even pronounced, reading difficulties. Thus, concert recitations, when the whole class is required to go through the same drill exercises simultaneously, in a more or less sing-song fashion, are liable to be unproductive of the best results. Furthermore, repetition usually creates variations, which may be to the pupil's advantage or may not be.

On the other hand, a diffident child, or one who reads aloud at too fast a rate, may improve his reading through participation with a group. There is "safety" in numbers. The social side of the experience of learning is not to be ignored but utilized. A skillful teacher, let us say, has a bashful boy in a mixed fifth-grade class. When she calls upon him to read orally he stands awkwardly and reads hesitantly and without expression. A dramatization is arranged, and this "backward" reader is given a small part. The effect is noticeable at once, or it will be after a few trials. Everybody knows that to take part in a chorus is one thing, but to sing a solo is something quite different.

Attention and its relation to reading.—Common experience and observation go to show that one's eyes may range over a whole page and not bring "home" a meaningful reaction. Physical movement is not enough. While active, voluntary attention—where the child of his own

accord attends to business—is none too frequent in some classrooms, teachers should not rest content until such attention is attained. Passive listening to a teacher or to a gifted pupil will not evoke the attention that zestful, understanding self-activity will usually call forth. The time to teach anything is when attention is self-focussed through the self-interest that comes of self-activity.

Attention may also be classified as primary and secondary, a matter quite apart from, yet concomitant with, those movements of the eyes which were explained in the preceding chapter. There is the attention that centers in a given amount of reading matter, that takes in an eyeful, as it were, and recognizes the central meaning thereof. This is primary attention. There is also the attention that is simultaneously paid to other words which are more or less on the outer cognitive fringe of consciousness. This secondary or marginal attention may function no farther than the limits of a phrase, though, in occasional instances, it may extend to a clause or even to a short sentence.

In brief, secondary attention is anticipatory in function, serving as a guide to an additional "eyeful of words." It facilitates each new recognition and enlarges its span. Thus, secondary attention enables one to read continuously, eliminating what might otherwise be a succession of interrupted jerks across a page. With a little child, this may be very difficult, if not impossible, save only after many experiences distressing alike to himself and to his teacher. Nevertheless, abundant practice with intrinsically[1] constructed flash cards should tend to enlarge the pupil's span of attention.

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[1]See page 139.

Primary attention needs the supplementation of secondary attention that there may be wider connotations and higher overtones of meaning. The pupil's consciousness must be awakened to understandings which, elsewhere apprehended, will assist in illuminating words in the immediate focus of attention. In this way, reading progress is in large measure assured.

As a child advances in school the value of secondary attention should increase and lead him the more readily to grasp meanings in situations larger and larger as time goes on. The teacher's responsibility in this respect will only have been fulfilled when she has provided adequate practice activities—on the one hand, to prevent the child's attention from wandering, and, on the other, to enable him to utilize both sensory and meaning factors in reading.

Reading and original thinking.—As has been indicated elsewhere,[1] there are two modes of thinking. One mode is directed or controlled and moves, as it were, in the grooves of another's thought-processes. The other mode is original, more of one's own creation, so to speak. Though it is granted that all reading is, for the most part, primarily of the first type, that is, thinking under teacher and author direction, it will be well to remember that reading should lead to the second type, that is, thinking on the pupil's part.

If teaching a child to read means to teach him simply to follow in a writer's thought-channels, leading the pupil to no higher objective than that denoted by some one whose words he reads, to be sure, in such case, his reading will probably bear no inconsiderable fruit in his thought-life. If teaching is thus limited, however, we know that

[1]See pages 4 ff. and, especially, 61.

it will fall far short of its highest usefulness as an intellectual tool.

Let us say that the reading selection is a poem—Longfellow's "The Arrow and the Song". A reading technique which ignores the desirability and the possibility of a child's flight of fancy or which fails to afford him the opportunity of contemplation upon larger meaning values, loses much of genuine worth as a school activity. Again, if the reading of a history text, for instance, merely means that the pupil will take away only what the writer has himself thought out—another mind's reactions to men and events—there is something lacking in the permanent, fructifying worth of such mental activity. Grade by grade, in some degree, reading should be so ordered that it encourages the creative side of the pupil's intellectual life.[2] After all, this is but another way of saying that learning is a form of activity, and that one learns to think by thinking.

The child who today sees little more than a "funny story" in *Gulliver's Travels*, through life's intellectual contacts, including reading, will later come to see in Swift's masterpiece a richly laden social satire. Wider and wider reading in the upper grades must result in keener appreciation of literary similarities and differences, a gradation of values, and juster judgments in every subject in the curriculum. To quote the quaint phraseology of a very old work in another field, a pupil should be trained to "read, mark, learn, and inwardly digest" the printed matter before him.

Reading and the emotions.—Intimately associated with the reading process is the affective or emotional nature of

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[2]See pages 72 ff.

the child. As he feels toward a character about whom he is reading, so will he pass judgment upon him. As his home or companions emotionally react toward a situation alluded to in a book or current newspaper, so will the pupil in the classroom reflect and draw inferences.

Our instincts, various as they are,[1] will always have much to do with the formation of our concepts and thought-wholes. In the earliest years, the social instinct, for instance, will play a dominant rôle. In daily life, the pupil recognizes his home folks and playmates as familiar figures in his environment. Through reading he not only again comes in touch with familiar friends, but also makes the acquaintance of a host of others, real as though in the flesh, even if fictitious. These vicariously acquired friendships may grow to be almost as near and dear, may even approach as close to the center of a child's life and interests, as playground comrades themselves. Strange to say, they may remain with him, as every adult will bear witness, longer and more deeply attached than many a living person.

The instincts underlying the concepts of the good, the true, and the beautiful will enter as factors in the pupil's school activities. While the social instinct will continue to play its part, the instincts of play, imitation, and curiosity will account very largely for the early development of the concept of what is good and true. That which finds approval with mother or father will be rated similarly by the judgment of a little child. George Eliot once wrote that the truth of feelings is greater than the truth of intellect, or words to that effect. Naturally, as years advance, broader social approval will be sought until, in

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[1]There are several classifications.

time, a thing to be true or good must receive nothing short of the highest sanction—the full sanction, that is, of one's whole being. This thing "rings true," as we say; that one "wears well."

Somewhat similarly, the concept of beauty is based on the instinctive sensory impulse of rhythm as well as upon the higher emotions of harmony, symmetry, mass, and proportion. It is not to be expected that a very young child will respond in any marked degree to these more mature emotional values. Beyond the physical rhythm of a poem or the "swing" of a prose selection a pupil's capacity may not generally extend. Only the gifted few will react to more than the simplest instinctive appeals.

Not until the junior high school grades have been reached will emotional impulses move much, if at all, above the lower levels.

The teacher of reading will have this instinctive life of her pupils in mind when she selects her reading matter. Not only the type of matter but its degree of difficulty, emotional as well as intellectual, will help very largely to determine the wisdom of her choice. Furthermore, her conduct of reading procedures will be influenced by the basic emotional nature of the pupils at the varying stages of their development. These and other hygienic matters will be the theme of the next chapter.

Review.—Psychological factors are basic to the reading process. At the moments of eye-fixation reading takes place. By reason of the phenomena of the recognition of words and of the comprehension of larger language-units there is an association of new ideas with others previously acquired in experience, either actual or vicarious, or both. Interest is of vital importance to the entire problem of teaching children to read. The source of reading inter-

est lies primarily in the value that the selection may have for the reader. The pupil's successful reaction, the teacher's genuine interest, the selection's recognized usefulness, and the individualization of activities according to the pupil's personal tastes, are paths to interested reading.

Attention, too, has an important bearing upon satisfactory reading. Meaningful, fruitful effort requires the focusing of attention. Furthermore, the phenomena of primary and secondary attention help materially to effect continuity of reading across the printed page.

Reading, however, which leads a child merely in the intellectual footsteps of another, while it has its value, lacks much of permanent worth as a classroom activity. Reading should also be provocative of original thinking, and, in turn, original thinking will bear an increasingly noticeable relation to the growth of comprehension. Finally, the child's affective nature has much to do with his realizing the highest values from his reading.

STUDY PROBLEMS

A. Discussion Topics

1. Our physical eye plays a far less important part in the process of learning to read than does our mental eye.

2. The similarity of recognition in everyday life to recognition in reading will help the teacher understand the phenomena of the psychological basis of reading.

3. "Hard work is more important than interest in learning to read."

4. "In present-day classrooms interest is oftentimes an excuse for keeping pupils amused."

B. Group Research Topics

1. A study of a group of children to determine which of the psychological factors mentioned in this chapter have probably played the major part in their reading process.

2. A comparative study of the psychological aspect of reading as presented by two or more authorities, such as Gates, Thorndike, Judd, and O'Brien.

3. A study of TERMAN and LIMA's *Children's Reading*, Chapter III, "Why Children Read"; Chapter V, "The Development of Reading Interests"; Chapter VII, "Differences in Mental Ability"; Chapter VIII, "Sex Differences in Reading Interest."

C. INDIVIDUAL RESEARCH TOPICS

1. A summary of the thought in GATES's *New Methods in Primary Reading*, Chapter III, "Learning to Read without Special Guidance"; or in O'BRIEN's *Reading; Its Psychology and Pedagogy*, Chapter II, "Comparison of Silent and Oral Reading."

2. A report upon GATES's *New Methods in Primary Reading*, Chapter IX, "The Phonetic and Visual Characteristics of English Words."

3. A report upon the *Twenty-Fourth Yearbook*, Chapter IV, "The Development of a Meaningful Vocabulary and of Independence in Word Recognition."

4. A review of GATES's *The Improvement of Reading*, Chapter IV, "Types, Causes, and Further Diagnosis of Difficulties in Word Recognition."

5. A personal record of word recognition: a comparison of abilities with familiar and unfamiliar reading matter.

6. A personal record of word recognition: a comparison of abilities with reading matter in history, geography, arithmetic, and poetry.

7. A study of personal reading speed, association of ideas the dominant factor.

8. The results of practice in one's own reading.

9. Interest as it affects one's own reading.

10. A report upon LEONARD's *Essential Principles of Teaching Literature and Reading*, Chapter VIII, "Backgrounds and Approaches."

11. A report upon GATES's *The Improvement of Reading*, pages 312–316, "The Problem of Motivation in Non-Readers."

12. A study of DEWEY's *Interest and Effort in Education*, with special reference to the reading problems indicated in this chapter.

13. A study of COLVIN'S *The Learning Process*, Chapter XVII, "Attention and Interest"; Chapter XVIII, "Attention in Relation to Learning"; Chapter XIX, "Pedagogical Applications of the Doctrine of Interest."

14. A review of GATES'S "A Study of the Rôle of Visual Perception, Intelligence, and Certain Associative Processes in Reading and Spelling."

15. A study of the affective elements in consciousness as discussed in J. R. ANGELL'S *Psychology*, Chapter XIII.

D. THEME ASSIGNMENTS

1. My own reactions to the discussion in this chapter.
2. My memory of concert recitations.
3. How a pupil's extreme diffidence was overcome.
4. The extent to which my own teachers have exemplified the thought of this chapter.
5. The extent to which I have observed the factors described in this chapter stressed in classrooms where I have observed the teaching of reading.

CHAPTER VI

THE HYGIENIC IMPLICATIONS OF THE PHYSIO-PSYCHOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF THE READING PROCESS

The main points of this chapter.—In this chapter we begin our study of the practical results of the investigations that are indicated in the first chapters and that have made possible our understanding of the importance and nature of reading in the school life of today. In a sense, the following pages round out the treatment of the reading art as presented in the two chapters immediately preceding. We are here to note the broad hygienic functioning of the reading process in classroom procedure.

The study of the physiological and psychological aspects of reading implies at least three important matters in teaching technique, namely, the careful selection of reading material, the thoughtful planning of reading lessons, and the conservation of the physical and mental health of pupils.

The Careful Selection of Reading Material

While it is true that classroom teachers are not often directly responsible for the reading material they use, they should nevertheless be alive to the bearing of modern discoveries in the process of reading upon the physical make-up of reading texts. At every opportunity they

should feel themselves in duty bound to urge the adoption of suitable books.

The physical make-up of a book.—It has been found that eye-movements are markedly affected by the physical construction of the reading matter in use. The strain resulting from the muscular movements required by the act of reading a single page, extraordinary in itself, is measurably increased by the fatigue incident to sustained attention. To look at a page steadily for several minutes during a reading lesson is much more fatiguing to the muscular and nervous system than to look at other objects at a greater distance from the eye.

The printed page should contribute in as great degree as possible to the pupil's ease of reading and his relief from strain. It is, therefore, of the highest importance that care be exercised so far as the physical aspects[1] of book and page are concerned. As yet there is little certitude attaching to any of the standards that have been set up in these particulars. However, various investigations lead us to hold the following, even if more or less tentatively, and to consider them of weight in the reading process.

Class textbooks should not be so heavy or so bulky as to be handled with difficulty. If they must be laid on the desk because of size, the reading angle will be such as to diminish legibility. They should be so constructed as to stand ordinary wear and tear and yet keep their appearance. The binding should be strong and the covers durable as well as attractive.

The quality of the paper used in textbooks may contribute to eye-relief and facilitate reading rate. It has

[1]The student will find a very readable as well as authoritative treatment in W. S. GRAY'S *Summary of Investigations Relating to Reading*, Chapter XV, "Hygienic Requirements of Printed Materials."

been demonstrated[1] that non-glossy, white, opaque paper is best. Experiments with several kinds of book paper go to show that glare reduces reading efficiency. It is not quite certain whether color has any appreciable effect one way or another, though pure white is probably to be preferred. Furthermore, the paper in books that pupils handle should be sufficiently thick to make turning easy. The ink, which ought to be black, must not "show through."

The arrangement of print on a page should receive especial attention. The type used should produce clear print[2] of size graded according to the school year. Investigation appears to favor a gradation from eleven-point for books of the upper years to as large as twenty-four point for primers and first readers.[3] Fatigue is progressively greater as the size of type becomes smaller.

Particularly with beginning reading texts, the length of line is an important matter. Lines of even, uniform length[4] are more to be desired than uneven lines. A pupil grows into the habit of reading a line with a certain number of eye-fixations and interfixation sweeps. And this is in keeping with our adult experience. Let us start to read a novel, and our eyes, soon accommodating themselves, settle down, as it were, to a reading movement of rhythmical progression. To disturb this movement by frequent changes in line-length would mean unnecessary

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[1]See HUEY'S *The Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading*, page 414, or STARCH'S *Educational Psychology*, pages 263–264.

[2]Consult ROETHLIN'S "The Relative Legibility of Different Faces of Printing Types." See, also, SHAW'S *School Hygiene*, pages 171–172 for a discussion of letter-legibility.

[3]See BLACKHURST'S "Size of Types as Related to Readability in the First Four Grades."

[4]See DEARBORN'S *The Psychology of Reading*, page 38.

eye-strain. Even illustrations should not break into the line-length but should take up the entire width and preferably the upper part of the page. The line-length should lie between 2.5 and 3.5 inches. With greater length not only is fatigue likely but regressive movement also.[1]

Then, too, the uniform and proper leading[2] or spacing between lines, the adequacy and regularity of margins, top space and bottom space, the separation of letters and words[3] are all to be considered as factors having distinct bearing upon a child's reading efficiency.

More important still is our answer to the question: Why and when shall we have illustrations? In the first place, illustrations should be not merely interesting but interpretative of the text. They should not, however, be used, as a rule, when the interpretation is clear enough without them. Indeed, it may be worse to have illustrations than not to have them if through them the pupil's imagination will be narrowed to an image not truly in agreement with the author's thought. The image evoked by the child himself may well be superior to that of the illustrator. Furthermore, unless the artist understands the development of a child's imagination he may provide too difficult a representation. On the other hand, of course, the illustration of a great artist will not only have immediate interpretative value but may also, by stimulating the childish imagination, be an undeniable means of culture.

The language factor of a book.—Since we know that we may increase a pupil's eye-voice span and his span of

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[1]See Huey's *Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading*, pages 409–412, and Blackhurst's "Length of Line as Related to Readability in the First Four Grades."

[2]See Blackhurst's "Leading as Related to Readability in the First Four Grades."

[3]See Huey's *Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading*, pages 407–408.

recognition,[1] it is well to give careful thought to the language factor in a book. A child's ease of interpretation depends in no slight degree upon his general familiarity with the material he is to read, not only its theme but also its style. The page of a book should reveal a sentence length not too uneven, a difficulty of word and phrase not too great, and a gradation in word values not too sharp.[2] The larger the thought-units which a child can recognize at a glance, the fewer will be his eye-fixations, the less his eye strain, and, of course, the greater his speed in reading. Paragraphs should likewise be proportionate to the reading-attainment level of the pupils. This will naturally vary according to grade and type of matter read. Long paragraphs generally tend to lessen attention and dampen interest. Similarly, with the selection as a whole. Too great length may tire pupils and thus defeat the teacher's purpose, however attractive the subject matter itself may seem. As the child proceeds to the higher grades he may be expected to sustain attention over a longer period and read more extensively than in earlier years.

The content of a book.—What we bring to a printed page is a powerful aid to our interpretation of the matter visually sensed. Books of well-graded material are therefore to be preferred. For example, in the earlier grades the stories should deal with concrete situations in order to effect a not too abrupt change from the actual experience with which the children have been familiar all their lives to the experience reflected on the printed page.

The content of a reading book should be interesting.

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[1]See pages 55, 71–72, and 78.

[2]Consult, THORNDIKE's *The Teacher's Word Book*, for an interesting and important study of word-frequency. Also GATES's *A Reading Vocabulary for the Primary Grades*.

Good reading, we know, is aided when the span of recognition and the speed of recognition are improved. As we have previously stated, interest is a factor in this improvement. Furthermore it will be recalled that one of our major aims in teaching reading is to provide strong motivation to read. Rich and varied material will help to this end.

The content should be not only well graded and interesting but, in addition, varied in the subjects treated. It may be unwise to offer too much poetry, for example. Factual and imaginative matter ought to be well proportioned. The presence of boys and girls requires that the teacher allot a certain amount of space to adventure stories for the boys and to stories of a more domestic nature for the girls, always remembering that girls frequently like boys' stories, too. In passing, let it be said that there is truly an astonishing breadth of reading interest[1] on the part of children. This breadth should find recognition in the books they are asked to read at school.

The Thoughtful Planning of Reading Lessons

Besides the effect of the careful selection of reading material upon the physical and mental health of pupils, there is also the thoughtful planning of reading lessons, especially as to time-allotment.

When reading should begin.—More than thirty years ago Professor John Dewey[2] maintained that the child should not begin to learn to read until he is at least eight years old. He based his contention largely on physiological grounds. According to this eminent authority the place that reading holds in our curriculum is really a mat-

[1]See pages 252–252.

[2]*New York Teachers' Monographs*, November 1898.

ter of long-standing tradition. The coming of other means of culture, such as the several art forms, has altered the position of this educational problem. However, conservatism still holds to the older notion, and most teachers will probably teach reading if they are assigned to the first three years quite as frequently as if they were appointed to the middle or higher classes. Nevertheless, the point of view of Professor Dewey and scholars of his thought is worth considering in connection with the length of time to be devoted to a reading lesson.

The length of the reading period.—Although the teacher has little or no influence upon when the child is to begin to read, she may have a good deal to do with how long his reading lesson shall be. Wide observation compels us to assert that one of the commonest of errors exhibited by young teachers—and one not altogether unknown among experienced teachers as well—is the neglect of this factor of time-limitation in their lesson-planning. Probably, the best corrective, if it were possible to apply it, would be to arrange a full day's program of studies for teachers themselves to pursue. Before planning any reading lesson every teacher can at least ask herself the simple question, How long will this lesson take under actual classroom conditions?[1]

Conservation of the Physical and Mental Health of Pupils

Defective vision in childhood.—Many a time poor reading is attributed to native inability, inattention, insufficient background, or to any one or more of a number of causes when, in reality, it is due to defective eye-sight. More children suffer, for example, from near-sightedness,

[1]See page 136ff. for suggestions on this point.

far-sightedness, and astigmatism—to name only the most common defects—than many practical teachers may be inclined to believe. The root of each of these eye-defects is in a faulty refraction of the light rays on the retina, and in such circumstances proper movement of the eyes across a page is not to be expected[1]. The eye-voice span and the span of recognition, for instance, cannot develop as they should do when a pupil is unable to distinguish *a* from *o*, *their* from *there*, or when punctuation marks appear blurred in the field of vision. In these cases not only are the habits that the teacher is striving to establish not established, but in their place inappropriate ones are likely to be substituted. Before improvement can be made in the number of fixation pauses, interfixation and regressive movements, or in the rhythmical progress of the eyes, the defects of vision must be corrected or remedied.[2] In many instances there will have to be consultation with an eye-clinic nurse, perhaps with an oculist.

Amount, quality, and direction of light for reading.—Light conditions have an appreciable bearing upon a child's reading efficiency. Too much light glaring directly down upon an open book tends to impede the pupil's reading progress and may prove injurious to a pupil's eyesight. It is better to have the light shine moderately and uninterruptedly over the young reader's shoulder. The teacher should exercise care that her wall maps and charts are hung neither in a dark corner of the classroom nor in a glistening light streaming through an unshaded window. All lettering on maps and charts, as well as on blackboards,

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[1]A recent study of nearly 1000 city children of pre-school age revealed the fact that 178, or 18.1 per cent, exhibited refractive errors. These head the list. See "The Vision of Pre-School Children," page 16.

[2]Consult GATES's *The Improvement of Reading*, pages 253–260.

will be, of course, without disturbing shadow or reflection, and in every respect as clear as possible from any section of the room.

The pupil's posture.—The teacher's effort is along the right line when she insists upon a child's sitting straight, not necessarily stiff but erect at his desk, and holding his book at a distance—between ten and fourteen inches—commensurate with the condition of his eyes. Standing posture during oral reading should receive the consideration it deserves, for it has a direct effect upon the pupils' speech.

Defective hearing in childhood.—The auditory as well as the visual sense should be given due weight in a teacher's planning.[1] The extent of defective hearing has been variously estimated but it is probably no exaggeration to state that it occurs in from 2 to 20 per cent of our school children.[2] In an even larger percentage the discrimination of sounds is none too acute. The importance of these facts is apparent when one reflects that interpretation does not by any means depend upon good eye-sight alone, nor upon mental ability or favorable cultural background. Nice discrimination of oral effects when matter is read aloud will come through practice in listening as well as in reading. Rate, pitch, volume, and tone are all within the scope of a teacher's interest, not only so far as the pupil's ability is concerned but also so far as her own example in class may indicate correct example and model. Particularly in the beginning years, training may improve associated motor skills, such as are used in pronunciation, for example. In this connection, it

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[1]See pages 48–49.

[2]See TERMAN'S *The Hygiene of the School Child*, pages 222–223, and NORSWORTHY and WHITLEY'S *Psychology of Childhood*, page 122.

should be borne in mind that teachers may not expect that training will accomplish all things. Investigation goes to show that one's sense of rhythm, for instance, will probably not develop as a result of practice drills.[1]

Finally, it should be kept before one that the child's hearing may interfere with his progress in general school work as well as in his reading development.

Mental hygiene.—There is a mental and there is a physical aspect to hygiene. The hygiene of the eyes and the ears, although a very important matter, represents only a part of the troubles to which flesh is heir. In consequence, the teacher must address herself to her pupils' many sided natures, even in so apparently limited a field as lesson-planning. We have all too little knowledge about mental health to help us greatly, but some facts are fairly well established.

Emotional instability, depression, nervousness, morbid tendencies, and temperamental unsteadiness, not to mention more serious weaknesses, will account for many of the reading difficulties in some school children. Of the mentally abnormal or below par, the number rises to the astonishing figure of probably 10 per cent of the population. Of approximately 2,000,000 school children in one state—New York—it has been reliably stated that 100,000 will one day be charges in institutions for the mentally disordered.[2] Besides this great amount of intellectual and

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[1]Cited by GARRISON and GARRISON in their *The Psychology of Elementary School Subjects,* from KLAUER'S "The Effect of Training in Rhythm upon Rhythmic Discrimination in Intermediate Grades." See SEASHORE'S *The Psychology of Musical Talent* for tests used by Klauer.

[2]Of 1,030,000 school children in New York State public schools it has been estimated that approximately 95,500 are probably doomed to become mentally diseased or disordered in a way to unfit them for life or seriously to handicap them. See "Expectation of Mental Disease," by POLLOCK and MALZBERG.

emotional disease there is a multitude of people who are not far above the lower levels of healthy mentality.

Happily, the ordinary classroom will see very few, if any, of these subnormal, underprivileged boys and girls. It may, however, have an appreciable quota of children who are more or less highly unsatisfactory from the standpoint of mental hygienics. Even among apparently normal pupils the teacher will not infrequently discern unmistakable signs of peculiarity. While, as a matter of fact, serious cases of mental disability may never come within the experience of most teachers, there will always be a boy or a girl, who, though not a prospective institutional patient, may show signs of mental instability of one sort or another.

Probably few, if any, persons are in perfect mental health, even as few, if any, are in perfect physical health. There are degrees of mental steadiness as of physical vigor from period to period through life, just as there may be from hour to hour through a single day. Sudden shock, fright, fear, or any one of a dozen causes may put the mental mechanism out of alignment temporarily, if not permanently.

The teacher and mental hygiene.—Teachers can do much to improve remediable conditions. From nursery and kindergarten days to the end of the school experience they may help create conditions for a happy mind-set on the pupil's part. Individual counsel, the encouraging glance, or timely word, the carefully prepared piece of work—well adjusted to specific needs—should be within the possibilities of any classroom. And, let it be remarked in passing, the teacher's own mental health will itself be a large contributing factor.

The teacher of reading and literature will be quick to note her opportunity in this broad field of mental health.

Through the story, the fairy tale, the myth, and the legend, through the play, the poem, and the printed speech, she may make clearer many a clouded mental state or positively affect the growth of habits of clean and wholesome thinking and feeling. Training in correct study habits and the cultivation of proper moods and attitudes will prove of inestimable worth not only in school days but also in later years.

The classroom's physical condition and "atmosphere."—A word must here be said about general classroom conditions and, especially, upon that subtle thing called "atmosphere." It is not ventilation only that makes a classroom livable, though ventilation is important, of course. It is not high ceilings and an adequate amount of free air space in every classroom, that enable pupils to study well, though such matters should and do receive the attention of school architects and administrators. It is not correctly built, "hygienic" seats that are of really first importance in any classroom, though the classroom not so equipped lacks something of value. It is not a physical thing at all that contributes most to the intellectual, moral, emotional, and spiritual health of school children. It is what we have termed "atmosphere." Indeed, a classroom with every physical comfort and convenience that money and ingenuity can provide, and with few or no distractions roundabout, is worth very little if the teacher is poorly equipped with those intangibles that make for so much in the lives not only of children but of adults as well—a serene temperament, a pleasing, well-modulated voice, and a genuinely attractive manner.[1]

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[1]The student should follow this discussion with a more thorough study of mental hygienics such as may be found in Chapter XIV, "Mental Hygiene," in *Educational Psychology*, by MONROE, DE VOSS, and REAGAN.

Review.—The hygienic implications of a study of the physiological and psychological aspects of reading are many. Briefly, they may be classified under the following general heads: the careful selection of reading material, the thoughtful planning of reading lessons, and the conservation of the physical and mental health of pupils. In connection with the first of these, the teacher should consider the physical make-up of the textbooks in the pupils' hands, the print, language, and content not only of class readers but also of every other book in use. In connection with the second, the teacher should consider the time when reading should begin and, in particular, the length of the reading lessons given. In connection with the third, both the child's sensory system and his mental health should be kept in mind. Besides, the physical features of the classroom must be viewed in the light of their contribution to reading efficiency and progress.

STUDY PROBLEMS

A. Discussion Topics

1. The teacher should have a larger share in the selection of reading matter for her grade since she knows better than any one else the hygienic implications of the psycho-physiological basis of the reading process.
2. Hygienic conditions are really basic to the physiological and psychological bases of the reading process.
3. The part played by mental health in the school life of a pupil is probably more serious than the part played by physical health.

B. Group Research Topics

1. A comparison of several readers and the charting of their features from the standpoint of the principles explained in this chapter.

2. A study of the remembered hygienic difficulties in reading of a number of students and the measures taken by their teachers to eliminate them.

3. An investigation of the hygienic causes of the poor reading of pupils in either the first three years or the middle grades. Class teachers should be consulted and the results tabulated for later discussion. A parallel study of remedial measures may be made.

4. A review of TERMAN's *The Hygiene of the School Child.*

5. A study of LA RUE's *Mental Hygiene,* with especial regard for its bearing upon reading problems.

6. A study of BURNHAM's *The Normal Mind,* with particular attention to the light it sheds upon the problems of the teacher of reading.

7. A review of "The Gospel of Relaxation," in JAMES's *Talks to Teachers on Psychology: and to Students on Some of Life's Ideals.*

C. INDIVIDUAL RESEARCH TOPICS

1. A study of HUEY's *The History and Pedagogy of Reading,* Chapter IX, "Reading Fatigue"; and Chapter X, "Hygienic Requirements in the Printing of Books and Papers."

2. A review of H. H. KIRK's "Time Distribution by Subject and Grade."

3. A review of F. C. AYER's "Average Time Allotment in 49 Large Cities Compared with Seattle."

4. A review of C. M. REINOEHL's "An Analytic Survey of State Courses of Study for Rural Elementary Schools," for daily programs and time allotments.

5. A chart of "beginning reading" time for all the students in a teacher-training class.

6. A review of Chapter XIV, "Mental Hygiene," in *Educational Psychology,* by MONROE, DE VOSS, and REAGAN.

7. A review of WILE's "Mental Hygiene in the Public Schools".

8. A summary of "Ventilation in Relation to Mental Work," by THORNDIKE, MCCALL, and CHAPMAN, *Teachers College Contributions to Education,* No. 78.

9. A study of Chapter XV, "Hygienic Requirements of

Printed Materials," in W. S. Gray's *Summary of Investigations Relating to Reading.*

D. Theme Assignments

1. How the points made in this chapter appear in the light of one's own experience as a pupil.
2. How one's own silent reading has been improved through greater attention to bodily conditions.
3. Under what physical conditions one can read best orally.
4. How physical conditions in a classroom can affect pupils' reading progress.

PART II

READING IN THE BEGINNING GRADES—THE PERIOD OF READING HABIT FORMATION

CHAPTER VII

THE PREPARATORY OR PRE-BOOK STAGE OF READING

The problems of Part II.—In Part I we studied the foundations of reading. We discussed the importance and the nature of the reading process. We tried to take the long view of the development of reading and of the reading methods that have obtained up to the present time. We carefully considered the basis of the process in the physiological and psychological nature of the pupils. Finally, we noted certain practical hygienic implications for the guidance of the reading teacher's daily work.

In the three remaining parts of this book we shall study the art of teaching reading as it is practised in the beginning, middle, and upper school grades.

Part II has for its special problem the period of reading habit formation. Chapter VII takes up the problems of the preparatory or pre-book stage of reading. Chapter VIII treats of the initial or beginning stages of book reading. Chapters IX and X discuss the rapid progress stage of beginning reading in the second and third years of the child's school life.

The main points of Chapter VII.—Wisely to approach the teaching of a beginners' class in reading, the teacher should understand what equipment children bring to their first classes and what sort of exercises will most effectively teach them the relationship between the oral symbols to

which they are accustomed and the written or printed symbols that readers use. Our consideration of these points will be divided into three parts, followed by reports and plans of lessons demonstrating actual procedure. The three topics to be considered are as follows:

1. The native endowment and acquired background of the beginning-reading pupil.
2. The twofold problem of the beginning-reading teacher.
3. Important factors in the pre-book reading process.

The Beginning Pupil's Native Endowment and Background of Life

The child enters upon his reading course with a native endowment developed through common experience and enriched by acquired knowledge. How large this native endowment may be, how great the pupil's development, and how deep his knowledge, have in recent years been subjects of very painstaking inquiry. Children in special groups, in their homes, in nursery schools under private control and in public and private kindergartens have all been diligently studied and their growth noted over a period of time. The important point for the beginning-reading teacher to remember is that her pupils come to her with a more extensive and more widely varied background than she may be inclined to presuppose.

The physical background of first-grade pupils.—In the first place, each child has been endowed with a physical organism which demands special provision for its proper development. Growth has been extremely rapid in many children, much slower in others. The brighter pupils will generally show a better physique than their duller classmates. Not only in general are differences indicated

but in every specific phase of well-being—in eyes, ears, nerves, muscular system—through the whole gamut of bodily parts and functions. Disease has weakened some pupils more or less permanently. According to one authority,[1] better than one in three of all deaths may be expected among children not yet six years old. The importance of the physical and physiological basis[2] of the reading process will here be recalled.

The pupils' mental background.[3]—Every child has been endowed with acute, dull, or mediocre intellectual processes. It has been estimated that between 60 and 90 per cent of one's mental growth is due to one's inheritance. The mental age of an individual, as indicated by a standard intelligence test,[4] divided by his age in years (his chronological age, as it is technically called) will give his intelligence quotient (his I.Q.). Judged in this fashion, children, like adults, will be seen to vary from normal 100 I.Q.—that is, the individual whose mental and chronological ages exactly correspond—to, at the one extreme, 60 I.Q. or lower for the feeble-minded, and, at the other extreme, 130 I.Q. or higher, for the gifted child or genius. While in most classrooms there will hardly be pupils below the dull—that is, the 80 I.Q.'s—there may be many below the average—that is, the 90 I.Q.'s. On the other hand, there may be a number above the average at 110 I.Q., and a few superior at 120. Now and then the gifted, and still more exceptionally the genius, may be in our midst. For all of these, and for the gradations in between, provision should be made. Practically, most teachers will

[1]Professor Arnold Gesell of Yale. Consult page 4 of his *The Pre-School Child.*

[2]Consult Chapter IV.

[3]Consult Baldwin and Stecher's *The Psychology of the Pre-School Child.*

[4]Such as the *Stanford Revision of the Binet-Simon Test.*

group their pupils according to two or three levels of capacity for school work.

In passing, it should also be said that, while a person's I.Q. does not generally indicate marked change as he grows older, mental growth may continue to the age of fourteen or sixteen, and even beyond this limit in the case of the uncommonly brilliant person.

Characteristic of the normal pupil's mental background will be an awareness of his environment. He will, that is, observe and discriminate persons and things, colors, actions, pictures, and what not. He will seek to imitate what his senses and apprehension have made him conscious of. Memories of various sensations will have been created, and imaginings of future situations of pleasure or of pain will have been stimulated. Emotionally, too, there will have been registered certain reactions to varying stimuli, and, in different pupils, varying reactions to the same stimuli.[1]

The pupils' linguistic background.—In the number of word-sounds or oral symbols that children have at their command in the earliest grade, wide variation will of course be only too apparent. One child will show that he possesses a relatively large number of symbols associated with objects and ideas in a meaningful way, and all readily recallable. Another will seem to have just as many but will experience much greater difficulty in recalling more than a few with readiness, clearness, or accuracy. On the other hand, there will be pupils with a sadly limited stock of oral symbols and, it may also be, with an equally pathetic inability to recall.

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[1]For further discussion consult FOREST'S *Preschool Education;* GESELL'S *The Pre-School Child;* PECHSTEIN and JENKINS'S *The Psychology of the Kindergarten-Primary Child; Twenty-Eighth Yearbook;* or FOSTER and MATTSON'S *Nursery School Procedure.*

In some classes the usual amount of variation in vocabulary will be increased by the presence of children of foreign parents. Many of these children, accustomed to the use of a foreign language in their homes, will face the task of learning to recognize not only the written or printed symbols of our language, but the oral symbols as well. Foreign-language inheritance may, therefore, interpose a more or less serious handicap in reading development. It has been found, however, that the naturally bright children of foreign parents may be expected to do about as well in beginning reading as their classmates of English-speaking stock.

That most children will lack a knowledge of written and printed symbols—except common words like *bell*, *push*, *pull*,—is understood. Such a condition indeed creates the whole beginning-reading problem. To summarize the thought of Professor Gesell,[1] a child's progress in language, from three to five years of age, is shown in his oral use of prepositions and descriptive words, in his employment of larger thought-wholes, and in his understanding of clauses and sentences in their logical relationships.

The pupil's social background.—Individualism, however thorough-going, must, in great measure, give place to group-interests from the first day the child enters the schoolroom. The social lessons incident to this transition may come hard enough for some pupils. Shyness, diffidence, embarrassment, moodiness, and reticence, as well as their opposites, may be varyingly evident in any class of forty or fifty. Leadership will assert itself in some, but be wanting probably in many more. There will be the inquiring child and the apathetic child. There will

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[1]See page 221 of his *Mental Growth of the Pre-School Child.*

be the only child and the child from the large family, the over-supervised child and the child from the streets, the child with no experience as one of a group and the kindergarten graduate. Activity and inactivity will appear side by side. In not a few will appear the peculiar charm and winsomeness of wholesome-minded childhood.

The contribution of the kindergarten to the child's background.—To the development of its pupils, the kindergarten will probably have contributed a great deal. Though excellent teachers may still feel disposed to take sides, the prevailing opinion seems to favor kindergarten-prepared pupils. Purposeful activity under competent supervision, as it is found in the best kindergartens, will have had its effect upon most first-grade pupils. They will have benefited *physically*, through muscular coördination in suitable play and games, in dramatization and dances; *mentally*, through the story hour, construction work, and the skillful question; *linguistically*, through the free, spontaneous yet sympathetically guided opportunity to "talk themselves out"; and *socially*, through normal, natural, wholesome contacts with their fellows in the play circle of classroom and playground.

On the other hand, it is quite true that the transition from the greater freedom of the kindergarten to the more formal, more rigid régime of the first-grade classroom may prove as difficult for the young kindergarten graduate as for his fellow-pupil who has come directly from the home or the street. The teacher, too, may find the change disconcerting at times. On the whole, careful investigation[1] shows that the kindergarten child has far better than an even chance to make good. Failure, retardation,

[1]See W. L. GARD's "The Influence of Kindergarten on Achievement in Reading," pages 135–138.

and repeating are less likely to mar his record. In speed and comprehension of reading he will be likely to show himself superior.

The Problem of the Beginning-Reading Teacher

The teacher of beginning reading faces a twofold problem. In order to be successful she must (1) coördinate efforts of differing groups of individualities, such as the kindergarten and the non-kindergarten groups; and (2) provide for suitable reading activities so that the bridge between the oral symbol and the printed symbol may be crossed as effectively as possible.

The coördination of efforts.—To coördinate the various groups of individualities, such as the kindergarten and the non-kindergarten groups is not an easy task. For one thing, if for no other, the knowledge and experience of pupils will naturally rest on different levels. Their kindergarten or non-kindergarten backgrounds may serve to accentuate this situation, and testing will reveal other differences, as our study of the basis of the reading process has already indicated.[1]

Special periods or parts of periods will have to be set aside for group instruction. The kindergarten pupils, for example, may be given seatwork sufficiently advanced, worth while, and interesting in character to command the attention and effort of very active little people. The non-kindergarten pupils may, at the same time, be doing at least some of the exercises that their classmates have already done, or specially designed exercises, if the need seems to require them. It should be observed that in some instances there will be children whose home training may have been almost if not quite equal to that of the kinder-

[1]See Chapters IV, V, and VI.

garten. In the proper atmosphere, under thoroughly wholesome conditions, children permitted the greatest freedom will grow in mental stature with little direct control by teachers.[1] There will, therefore, be additional reason for testing all pupils at the very beginning and for classifying them accordingly.

Furthermore, both of these groups must be taught to work together as a class though one group may continue to be more alert than the other and more readily adjustable to the situations that well-conceived learning methods will have devised. The social side of school life should not be neglected in our efforts to develop the individualistic in childhood.

Providing suitable reading activities.—The effective building of a bridge, as it were, between the oral symbol and the written or printed symbol presents the dominant phase of our problem. To this end the teacher of beginners in the art of reading must bend all her energy and employ all her resourcefulness. Ways and means must be adroitly devised for thorough practice drills, while at the same time the primary aim of reading—thought-getting—must not be lost sight of. To summarize, let us say that four things are particularly important if the bridge that the teacher builds between the previously acquired oral symbols and the newly-to-be-acquired symbols on chart, card, blackboard, and page is to prove substantial in the literate life of her pupils.

First of all, the children must be stimulated to take a lively interest in the objective set them; their work must be properly and continuously motivated. That is to say, they must be led to feel the desirability of learning the

[1]Consult Gates's *New Methods in Primary Reading*, Chapter III, "Learning to Read without Special Guidance."

art of interpreting these new symbols before them. Any attempt at mere driving may be fatal to the child's interest and progress. The pupils must be won to reading. Secondly, therefore, the children must be encouraged to put forth well-directed, purposeful, and successful effort. Plans for such effort must be carefully graded and the results must be carefully, though not obtrusively, checked. Testing must be not simply a task to be expected and dreaded but rather a form of genuine teaching. Thirdly, the pupils must have numerous, varied, and meaningful contacts with written and printed symbols, beginning with probably as large a language unit as the sentence and working systematically and purposefully toward the smaller units of phrase, word, phonogram, and finally the individual letter itself. Fourthly, well planned practice drills will be most necessary to insure ready and accurate reactions. Habit-formation is dependent upon regular and frequent repetition, unbroken by long lapses of inactivity, and impressive because interesting enough to assist the pupil's memory. It is, furthermore, necessary that these new language symbols be recognized not only swiftly where they first appeared to the child's eye and in as large units as possible but also readily no matter what the context may be. Ease of recall is of as much importance as recognition in the first instance.

It is the particular object of this chapter to make plain what has just been sketched through the record of concrete teaching situations.

Important Factors in the Pre-Book Reading Process

It is a pedagogic truism to say that most essential of all the factors in any teaching situation is the personality of

the teacher. First and always, the teacher of reading must be understandingly sympathetic and tactful. She must be resourceful in devising ways and means of meeting her pupils' difficulties, and patient in the presence of their failures and shortcomings. She must be enthusiastic even amid discouragements and disappointing results. She must cultivate a pleasing voice and manner. She must endeavor to see her problem as, at its core, not a meaningless, or only partially meaningful, word-storing, but rather as a thought-getting experience, wherein the pupils have a zest for accomplishment which they feel is worth their best efforts.

Three other factors are necessary to the successful teaching of reading. They are (1) adequate inquiry and testing to determine the pupils' ability and background, (2) sensible motivation to insure attention, and (3) well-prepared practice exercises.

Adequate testing.—There should be at least four tests at the beginning of first-grade work: (a) a personal history inquiry, (b) an intelligence test, (c) a general information test, and (d) a spoken vocabulary test.

A personal history inquiry.—This inquiry is intended to inform the teacher of certain facts about the child's home environment, his linguistic and cultural inheritance, his health history, and his attitude in kindergarten or home-training days. It will be well to have such data on record for convenient consultation and guidance in the preparation of group work. The inquiry may be made by the regular class teacher or by a specially assigned visiting teacher. Some of the facts may be derived from personal visits to the pupils' homes while others may easily come from a study of the nursery school or kindergarten records.

An intelligence test.—This test may be devised by the teacher on lines suggested by the four tests cited below, or the tests themselves may be inexpensively procured and easily administered:

The *Pressey Primary Classification Test* does not require the use of language, the test being composed of pictures. It is usable in the first three grades.

The *Pintner-Cunningham Mental Test*—in seven parts—consists of pictures to be marked according to oral instructions from the teacher. It is usable in the second grade as well as in the kindergarten and first grade.

The *Haggerty Intelligence Examination, Delta I*—in six parts—covers the needs of testing in all three of the beginning years. Its repeated use will indicate the pupil's progress up to the middle grades.

The Detroit First Grade Intelligence Test—in ten parts—is intended for small groups of from ten to twelve pupils.

All of these tests are useful to show the pupils' ability in such matters as common observation, discrimination of size, recognition of similarities, and the like.

A general information test.—This test also may be constructed by the teacher. Through informal conversation on several summer days the writer recently discovered that two small boys were interested in the following matters, among a number of others: cookies, picnics, Fourth of July, the arrival of a baby sister, automobiles, movies, airplanes and dirigibles, and the making of books. Their entertaining chats were fascinating, their interests wide; and they discussed each of the topics not only with a fair degree of authority but also with an astonishing accuracy of detail.

A spoken vocabulary test.—This test likewise may be improvised. On the other hand, such a standard test as

the *Pressey First Grade Attainment Scale in Reading* (*Revised*)[1], or such a series as the *Stormzand-McKee Vocabulary Tests*[2] may be found very useful. These latter tests will be especially serviceable in determining the bounds not only of vocabulary but also of general information and intelligence. Twenty in all, their scope may be judged from the following selected titles: distinguishing colors, following directions, defining by use, synonym or antonym, playing house, telling time, and so forth. The tests are based on a vocabulary of more than twelve hundred words derived from a number of trustworthy sources, in addition to personal investigation by the authors. In this connection the teacher will do well to study the list of some thousand words found in "the spoken vocabulary of children up to and including six years of age," as given in the *Twenty-Fourth Yearbook*.[3]

Sensible motivation.—Inasmuch as a large portion of the time allotted to reading in the first year, and very nearly all of it in the first few weeks of pre-primer work, will take the form of practice in the mechanics of reading, much ingenuity has been exercised in the development of ways and means to motivate these early lessons. The best motivation, of course, comes through interest and successful achievement following a felt need, and through definite instruction upon what is required. Rivalry of a wholesome sort is also helpful, particularly if the pupil's own record is made the basis of comparison between past and present performance.

Well-prepared practice exercises.—The word *practice* is not used as a substitute for mere repetitious drill, for

[1]Public School Publishing Co.

[2]STORMZAND and McKEE's *The Progressive Primary Teacher*, pages 90–116.

[3]Pages 186–193.

we should not entertain the all too general notion that drill is necessarily mere "grind" It may not be this in a present-day classroom, and it need not be. Practice should be something more than vain repetition. Properly understood, it is teaching of the most effective sort and really implies opportunity for pupil self-activity and reaction to well-prepared situations, and these as far as possible of a natural rather than of an artificial order.

Assuming that the class has been tested and the pupils classified we should expect to see the formation of at least two or three groups. While one of these groups is being taught directly by the teacher, the other will be taught indirectly through some form of seatwork. If the class is composed of highly selected pupils of fairly uniform attainments and background, and if it is not too large, grouping will be perhaps unnecessary. Individual instruction for specific needs will, however, always be imperative.

Practice under the immediate direction of the teacher.— The number of oral symbols which a child has already acquired will, as has been indicated, vary with the pupil. The number of new words which the teacher helps the child to learn before he reads a book will also vary, possibly all the way from fifty to eighty.[1] The time during which these new written or printed symbols have been acquired will include probably the earliest six to eight weeks of the first year. It will not be long before the pupils appear to group themselves according to their reading abilities. One reason for well-prepared seatwork[2] will

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[1]THORNDIKE'S *The Teacher's Word Book* will assist the teacher to choose these sight words wisely, though, generally speaking, her choice will be determined for her by the basal reading system in use in her school.

[2]See pages 119–120. for specific treatment.

be apparent—to assist backward children to come up to grade.

The various manuals for teachers, which accompany many of the reading systems, will prove helpful in this direct teaching period. The manual of one reading series, for instance, explains that the pre-primer work is based on a group of stories which have a "background of oral familiarity". The teacher tells these stories which, while they are not the same as will later be found in the primers, are nevertheless like them, for the most important words recur in the books that the children will presently receive. The story orally given enables the pupil to learn these fundamental words before he is called upon to read them in formal print. Some systems provide a colorful booklet at this earliest stage, the stories in which are reproduced on large wall charts for further practice in recognition of sentences and sentence parts. The whole thought here is to make the transition from oral to printed symbol as smooth, meaningful, and effective as can be.

A number of supplementary helps will be found at the teacher's service—phonic practice charts, flash cards for practice in ready recognition, bulletin boards for exhibition of special features learned, and kindred helps. Besides, more and more schools are being equipped with still and motion picture machines. In many classrooms, too, abundant objective illustration is at hand to make even more vivid the words and ideas used and spoken of during the story-telling lesson.

Flash cards—their use and abuse.—A special word should here be said about the use of flash cards. As a teaching adjunct they have their limitations. For one thing, there is obvious unreality in the reading situation that the flash card presents. The normal reading situa-

tion with a book before the pupil presents differences in size of type, distance from the eye, general appearance of the reading surface exposed to the child's view, and so forth. For another thing, as Professor Gates maintains, the transfer of skills when flash cards alone are used is far from satisfactory.[1] It is therefore suggested that care be taken that, if used, practice exercises with cards be alternated with other practice exercises intimately associated with genuine, normal reading. The especial usefulness of flash cards lies in the opportunity they afford for the gradual enlarging of the span of recognition and in the encouragement they extend for the taking in of larger word-groups as meaningful wholes. Of course, it should be remembered that continuity of reading is a most important end in the learning-to-read process.[2] Flash cards, even if arranged in sequence, can hardly meet this test of value.

On the same critical plane, though with a stronger note of approval, is the contention of Professor Horn,[3] who believes, in substance, that well prepared flash cards are necessary to the reading of factual matter, that they tend to increase the reading rate, and that they provide opportunity for differentiating pupils' difficulties. Dr. Horn is careful to stress the fact that flash-card drills should be properly arranged. To this end he urges that the words included be found in the oral vocabularies of the children, and be selected from among words frequently repeated in the reading matter of the grade. Results go to show,

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[1]See GATES's "Functions of Flash-Card Exercises in Reading;" and also GATES's *New Methods in Primary Reading*, pages 103–105 and 189–192. See, also page 139, in our text.

[2]See page 78.

[3]See HORN's "The Beginnings of Silent Reading"—a small pamphlet gratuitously issued by Ginn and Company.

Professor Horn points out, that flash-card exercises well ordered and sensibly used lead to facility in word mastery.[1]

Shall the teacher print or write the story she tells and the supplementary blackboard exercises that follow? Much has been said on this point—largely useless, one is disposed to believe. It is mentioned only because it is typical of the relatively minor matters that tend to confuse counsel and to annoy inexperienced teachers. The best opinion today appears to be that, as a rule, the teacher may print if she can print well. Good, legible writing, however, is to be preferred to poor printing. Probably charts should generally be printed, for they can be made carefully during leisure moments. Both script and print should be used interchangeably from the beginning. It is well to accustom children to neither one nor the other exclusively. Actual observation leads one to state that pupils seem far less concerned about this matter than some of their teachers appear to be.[2]

Material for work in phonics.—With several reading systems, special charts and other exercise material in phonics are provided for pre-primer work. Early teaching of phonics is thus encouraged. The place of this phase of reading method, as we have seen,[3] is still a moot question. We have already briefly discussed the theory of it. A word upon the practice is here in point. Some would postpone phonic teaching until as late as the second

[1]The *Horn-Shields Silent Reading Flash Cards* carry out Professor Horn's thought.

[2]From the recently issued report of a study entitled, "Experimental Comparisons of Print-Script and Cursive Writing," by ARTHUR I. GATES and HELEN BROWN, it would seem that pupils themselves, especially in the lower grades, prefer to use print-script in writing legends, headings, verse, etc. The tests were conducted by regular classroom teachers from February to June in a large city public school.

[3]Pages 32 ff. and 153–155.

year. Others would begin when the pupil has acquired the first fifty-odd sight words, to which reference has also been made.[1] Conditions, such as the neighborhood and its linguistic background, the particular reading system in use, and the general desirability of the work as indicated in prelimiary testing, will govern the decision. But there can be little doubt about the usefulness of properly prepared exercises in phonics when the time and occasion are right.

Seatwork.—As has been previously explained, seatwork is an important, and should be a well-integrated, part of the reading method of at least the beginning years. It should not be taken for granted that this work, which is done, we remember, at the pupil's seat without the immediate direction of the teacher, is a form of old-fashioned "busy-work" under a new guise. In fact, seatwork ought to be as conscientiously conceived for specific ends as any kind of direct-teaching exercise. It should be a part of a larger whole, supplementing or anticipating the direct-teaching lesson. So understood, it is real teaching.

Various seatwork materials have been devised by publishers[2] and by practical teachers alike. Outline pictures for coloring according to oral directions, or, for the more advanced pupils, according to printed directions; picture puzzles requiring the putting together of parts, each part bearing a label; separated sentence parts for rearrangement in correct sequence—these are but a few of the many forms seatwork may take. An excellent piece of seatwork for pre-primer pupils, and for somewhat backward pupils later in the first year, is the making of a

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[1]See page 115.

[2]The *Harter Publications,* issued by Edward E. Babb and Company, of Boston, include various suggestive and helpful devices and exercise material.

booklet[1] on the order of a scrapbook. In this booklet are pasted pictures of topics, objects, and persons spoken of or read about during the direct-teaching period. Children should be encouraged to bring to class their own pictures. All pictures may be kept in an envelope, pending the time when they are to be sorted and pasted with appropriate labels, the titles of which the children will be incidentally learning to recognize—that is, to read—in a perfectly natural way.

A valuable kind of seatwork, particularly for the better readers, is the silent perusal of interesting books at a table set aside for this purpose. Ready to hand will be picture books of an attractive sort with related reading material in the shape of clippings from periodical and newspaper. The teacher should make herself familiar with the fast multiplying matter now appearing for very young children's use. Kindergarten teachers and librarians of children's rooms in public libraries will be glad to assist her. As a rule, however, the books should be tested by the teacher herself, since even experts are by no means agreed in their judgments, and teaching situations differ from one classroom to another.[2]

Pre-Primer Lessons

A stenographically reported lesson in an actual classroom.—Try to visualize the classroom while the lesson is being taught. Try to catch the continuity of the lesson by a rapid first reading. Consider the very simple, human situation and the ways in which the teacher endeavors to

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[1]The Keystone View Company, of Syracuse, N. Y., publishes a *Primary Series of Pre-Reading Booklets.*

[2]Consult pages 178–182, "Materials Needed for Recreatory Reading," in the *Twenty-Fourth Yearbook.*

"win" the children. Note the interest she seeks to arouse. Note, too, the encouragement to take an active part in order that the lesson time may be as social as possible—a socialized period, as it is called. The children, it will be observed, are taught to read a sentence—something with meaning—from the very start.

The lesson was given to a first-term class of thirty pupils of average intelligence and no striking dissimilarity of either background or attainment, although they came from a somewhat cosmopolitan neigborhood. They were all graduates of a good kindergarten. The demonstration was given as a first lesson in beginning reading. The time was nine o'clock on Monday morning. The duration of the lesson was 25 minutes.

PART I

TEACHER: Boys and girls, do you know my name? It is Miss ——. Would you say "Good morning" to me? [*The children say* "Good morning" *more or less in unison.*] That was very nice, indeed. I wonder if you would like to tell me your names. Just your first names. I am going to start with this little boy and have each one tell me his name as I come to him.

Children tell names.

TEACHER: What lovely names! Would you boys and girls like to tell me some of the things with which you have a good time at home? Would you like to play with me? What do you have at home to play with?

Children suggest "Dolls."

TEACHER: What do you do with your doll? How many of you girls have dolls at home, and how many of you boys have sisters who have dolls? The other day I saw the doll of a little friend of mine. She was about that big. The little girl who owned her would turn something in the back of the doll and what do you think that doll would do?

Children suggest "Dance," "Talk," "Walk."

TEACHER: Walk. That is just what she did. Would you like to see how the doll walked? [*Teacher demonstrates.*] Would you like to do as the doll did? Stand! Let's wind ourselves up as the doll did. Let's step up toward the blackboard. How could you get back to your seats?

Children suggest "Turn around." "Walk."

TEACHER: Let's turn ourselves around and hop back to our seats. Who would like to play a little game with me? [*One little girl is called upon.*] What is your name? I am going to whisper something in Gertrude's ear, and Gertrude is going to do it, and you are going to watch with your two good eyes.

Gertrude walks across the room.

TEACHER: You came over here just as the doll did. Wasn't that fine? I am wondering how many of you could do just as Gertrude did. Let us see if Gertrude can repeat what I told her.

GERTRUDE: You can walk.

TEACHER: Let me see if this little girl, and this little girl, can do as Gertrude did.

Two little girls walk across the room.

PART II

TEACHER: Would you like to see how the chalk talks? This chalk talks just as Gertrude did. Would you like to see it? [*Teacher writes,* "You can walk."] What did it say?

PUPIL: "You can walk."

TEACHER: Could you come up and show us how you can walk?

Child repeats what the chalk says and walks across the room.

TEACHER: I am going to show you a chart of a funny man. [*Teacher shows a chart with a man walking. On this chart is printed,* "You can walk."]

CHILDREN: "You can walk."

TEACHER: Let's close our eyes. [*Teacher holds up another chart which says,* "You can walk".]

CHILDREN: "You can walk."

TEACHER: I would like to have some one come up and put his hands around "You can walk".

Two children do this.

TEACHER: I am going to ask you something. Who could come and find just the little part that says *walk*?

Child points to walk.

TEACHER: Who can find *walk* in another place?

Child points to it on another chart.

PART III

TEACHER: Will some one else play a game with me just the way these other children did? [*Teacher chooses a little boy and whispers to him,* "You can run". *Little boy runs.*] Choose some other children to do just that. Let me see if you can run just as Gene did. Would you like to have the chalk say just what Gene said? What did Gene say? Watch. What did the chalk say? Will you put your hands around what the chalk says? Would you like to see what this funny man does when he runs? What is he doing? What does he say?

Children respond correctly to these questions.

Teacher writes on the blackboard, "You can run."

TEACHER: Who can say what the chalk says? Can you find the part that just says *run*? Who can find *run* in another place? Put your hands around it. What does the chart say, children? [*Teacher nods encouragingly.*]

CHILDREN: "Walk." "Run."

PART IV

TEACHER: I'd like some one else to play a game with me. Have you got two good eyes this time? [*Teacher chooses a little boy and whispers to him,* "You can hop."] Child hops across the room. Choose some other children to hop. What is your name?

FIRST CHILD: Sarah.

SECOND CHILD: Nathan.

TEACHER: We are going to see if Sarah and Nathan can hop. [*They hop*] Fine! What is the chart going to say this time?

CHILDREN: "You can hop."

TEACHER: Watch. [*She writes:* "You can hop."] Do you know what it says?

CHILDREN: "You can hop."

TEACHER: Who can find the part that says *hop?*
Child points to the word hop.

Up to this point the teacher has written the following on the blackboard:

You can walk.
You can run.
You can hop.

PART V

[NOTE: *Before the first sentence,* "You can walk", *the teacher puts the number 1. She numbers each of the other sentences in turn, asking the children if they know the number.*]

TEACHER: Let's play a little game. Let's lock our lips, and let's throw the key out of the window. I am going to call a number. If I call number 1, I want you to look at that number, and when I call upon you, stand quietly and do what number 1 says. When I call number 3, do what number 3 says. When I call number 2, do what number 2 says. Ready! Number 3! [*One child is called upon, and he hops across the room.*] Now, unlock your lips and read it out loud to us. [*Child says,* "You can hop."] Number 1! [*The same procedure follows. The child who does the acting reads what he is told to do.*]

Interpretative questions and suggestions.—1. What specific aim do you discover in this lesson? 2. To what extent does analysis play its part? 3. Synthesis? 4. Note how the quest for meaning is a controlling objective throughout. 5. At what points does pupil self-activity enter? 6. How is silent reading made a part of the reading process? 7. What advance step is taken in each of the parts?

Appropriate seatwork drill.—Seatwork may be prepared for this entire class or, if there are two groups, for the group that has been taught the lesson. In determining just what the seatwork shall be, the first and most

important question for the teacher to ask herself is: What particular thing have I been teaching the pupils? In this case it was the reading of simple sentences expressing actions, and also of action words—the verbs—separated from the sentences.

Pictures colored or in outline, and illustrative of the several actions mentioned, will be distributed. Titles made up of the action words or the sentences themselves may be written or printed on the blackboard or distributed for pasting on the pictures.

Another form of seatwork might be the cutting out of the three action words as they appear in context among other words on a page. This will teach their recognition in different positions. If cutting is inconvenient to arrange, the words may be outlined in pencil. Still another form of seatwork might be the placing of the three sentences, or the three action words singly, on the blackboard with instructions to draw pictures illustrative of each.

A beginning silent reading lesson.—For beginners the silent reading lesson will keep close to the actual daily life of the pupils. Such a lesson may take any one of a number of forms, with the immaturity of the children always in mind and the practical needs of child-life conspicuously present. Self-activity is to the fore, and the teacher gives as large a place to the child as possible.

Clear and helpful guidance may be found in several recently issued books for teachers. In one[1] of these there is a lesson entitled, "Come to Class." It is intended for pupils at the very beginning of their school careers. Through cards and the blackboard the teacher endeavors to interest the class in worth-while expressions which will be

[1]WATKINS'S *How to Teach Silent Reading to Beginners.*

repeated later. The first is the sentence, "Come to class." Explanation is made that whenever these words are shown the pupils must come to the chairs in front of the room for class work. Thus, the pupils are made conscious of an idea from the very start. Of course, the act of coming to class must be repeated several times before the idea is firmly lodged. In close association with the first thought of "coming to class" is the corollary, "Go to your seats." Again, repetition is in order.

Throughout such exercises the teacher should require promptitude on the pupils' part and should maintain as great silence as possible on her own. In the game referred to above, the children's names may be printed on cards. These are then flashed before the class, each child responding individually as his name is noted—that is, silently read. A "silence game" is thus in order. This may be any one of a dozen or more simple activities. For example, it may take the form of a "calendar lesson", the children identifying the days of the week or the months of the year as the teacher or a pupil points to one or the other. Or, it may be a "clock lesson," the children naming the hour—"telling time"—as teacher or pupil points to one hour after another. Taps of a piece of chalk or of a pointer, rather than words, will indicate most of the necessary directions.

Seatwork for children who have been taught the lesson outlined in the preceding paragraphs may follow some such procedure as the following: The pupils will draw pictures of the things talked about in the lesson. The teacher may print or write the titles on the blackboard, the group to draw their pictures in the order given. The bulletin board may be used to display the best of the children's efforts.

Review.—Children enter upon the reading course in the first grade with varying physical and mental endowments. Each child's endowment has been developed through common experience in the home, in the street, and possibly in the nursery school and kindergarten as well. It has been enriched by knowledge similarly acquired. The beginning-reading teacher's problem is to coördinate the efforts of the individual pupils and make them work team-fashion, to provide suitable reading activities to meet their differing needs, and to help them bridge the gap between the oral symbols they know and the printed symbols they probably do not know. Apart from the vital importance of the teacher's personality, the chief factors insuring success are adequate testing, sensible motivation, and well-prepared practice exercises for direct teaching, seatwork, and drill. Oral reading and silent reading will form part of the beginning reader's program of purposeful activities.

STUDY PROBLEMS

A. Discussion Topics

1. "Much of the early game-playing may simply waste time and delay what must come anyway through effort and hard work."

2. At a parents' meeting, an experienced teacher requests assistance in solving the beginning-reading problem. What suggestions would you make as most valuable?

3. A small boy is shy in the presence of others. What may be the effect of this shyness on his reading progress, and how may it be overcome?

4. It may be that the coming of the nursery school will mark a decline in the influence of the home in early education.

5. Practice exercises that have seemed excellent in classrooms visited.

6. The place of the kindergarten in teaching beginning reading.

7. "A child who knows the flash-card drill may know the words themselves but may not be able to read their meaning from the printed page when the words appear in sentences."

B. Group Research Topics

1. A study of pre-primer work as explained and suggested in several teachers' manuals.

2. A résumé of the *Twenty-Eighth Yearbook, Part I,* Section 1: Chapers II, III, IV, VIII, IX, and XIII.

3. A résumé of the *Twenty-Eighth Yearbook, Part II,* Section 1: Chapters III, X, and XIII.

4. A résumé of Gesell's *The Pre-School Child,* with particular reference to reading possibilities.

5. The use of the blackboard in beginning reading. Consult Smith's *One Hundred Ways of Teaching Silent Reading,* page 21; Davis's *The Technique of Teaching,* page 115; Watkins's *How To Teach Silent Reading to Beginners,* page 23, *et passim.*

6. A summary of differing views on the kindergarten, such as those in L. M. Terman's *Intelligence of School Children;* A. Gesell's *The Pre-School Child;* and W. L. Gard's *The Influence of Kindergarden on Achievement in Reading.*

7. A review of suggestions upon interesting, informal activities for pupils in the pre-book stage, such as those in the *Twentieth Yearbook, Part II,* pages 153–172; S. C. Parker's *Types of Elementary Teaching and Learning,* pages 72–102; T. C. McCracken and H. E. Lamb's *Occupational Information in the Elementary School.*

8. A résumé of beginning reading problems as discussed in such books as: L. A. Pechstein and F. Jenkins's *The Psychology of the Kindergarten Primary Child;* L. M. Terman's *The Hygiene of the School Child* and *The Intelligence of School Children;* J. J. B. Morgan's *The Psychology of the Unadjusted School Child;* M. V. O'Shea's *The Child: His Nature and His Needs.*

9. Preparation of a pre-primer booklet after a study of several in current use.

C. Individual Research Topics

1. Beginning reading aids and accessories. Consult such a book as Watkins's *How To Teach Silent Reading to Beginners*, pages 22–29.

2. A report upon available, published pre-book material, such as the *Harter Publications*.

3. A summary of "Experiences and Training Which Prepare Pupils for Reading: Kindergarten and Early Part of First Grade", pages 26–35, *Twenty-Fourth Yearbook*.

4. A review of Parker and Temple's *Unified Kindergarten and First Grade Teaching*.

5. A review of Chapter I, "The Significance of the Pre-School Period", in Gesell's *The Pre-School Child*.

6. A review of "Learning to Read", pages 21–43, "Procedure for First Day", pages 57–90, and "Procedure for Stage 1", pages 91–148, in Marjorie Hardy's *First Grade Manual* for the *Child's Own Way Series*. A group of students may make this review.

7. A review of the pre-primer work prescribed for any modern system.

8. A study of the social habits of a group of very young children.

9. A study of the oral vocabulary of a group of pre-book children.

10. An intensive study of the pre-primer section of a teacher's manual.

11. A report upon an observed pre-primer reading lesson.

12. A study of flash-card material such as the Horn-Shields or any other available.

13. How phonics may be taught according to any present-day reading system.

14. Preparation of a pre-primer booklet after study of several in practical use.

15. A review of Ada Hart Arlitt's *Psychology of Infancy and Early Childhood*, Chapter VIII, "Social Attitudes in the Pre-School Period and Development of Personality", and Chapter IX, "Individual Differences in Pre-School-Age Children."

16. A review of GATES's *The Improvement of Reading*, "Motivating Remedial Instruction", pages 30–36.

17. A résumé of FOREST's *Preschool Education*, from the reading standpoint.

D. THEME ASSIGNMENTS

1. How the labels on canned goods and pantry supplies helped a younger brother or sister to read more quickly.

2. One's earliest reading recollections—a contrast.

CHAPTER VIII

THE INITIAL OR BEGINNING STAGE OF BOOK READING

The main points of this chapter.—The child's advancement to his first reading book creates special problems at this vitally important stage in the development of his thought-life. While there is probably no more difficult period in the teaching of reading than the initial or beginning stage there is also none more satisfying in results, provided that the work is wisely presented. This chapter discusses the factors necessary to success. In it are presented

1. Some general considerations in the beginning stage of book reading, including (a) the character of the period, (b) the desirable levels of achievement, (c) the necessity for frequent testing followed by remedial measures, and (d) the apportionment of time to reading.
2. A discussion of the different aspects of reading instruction in the first grade—primer and first reader, work-type and recreational, silent and oral—and of the use of phonics and phonetics in this grade.
3. A series of lessons demonstrating methods in teaching reading in the first grade.

Some General Considerations

The transitional character of the initial reading period. —The initial or beginning period of book reading is,

throughout, one of teaching the pupil to make the transition from oral symbol to written or printed symbol. By easy stages, the child at the close of, say, the second month has been taught to read the printed and written exercises on charts and possibly also on the pages of his pre-primer booklet. His first cloth-bound book is now to be placed in his hands. The teacher has prepared him for this event by plenty of story-telling and practice, his daily experiences being largely drawn upon, and his individual aptitudes as carefully respected as conditions will permit. By various devices and methods what the child has been told and what he has himself worked over at his seat have become associated with written and printed symbols. For example, he is able to tell what he ought to do when he sees certain simple, meaningful sentences, phrases, or words on the blackboard or on a large cardboard chart, or in his cardboard-bound booklet. Wisdom will suggest that the next reading material the pupil receives—his primer—shall present interesting content but few, if any, new words, that the old favorites shall reappear in fresh stories, and that familiar words shall continue to form the bulk of the first year reading material.

The desirable levels of reading achievement during the first year.—While the levels of reading attainment for the first year have not yet been definitely established for many of the reading abilities, several broad general objectives have been set forth. The *Twenty-Fourth Yearbook* thus states "the desirable levels of achievement at the close of the first year"[1]: (a) The pupil, when reading independently, becomes completely absorbed in the content of interesting selections; (b) he reads silently with few or no lip movements; (c) he discusses intelligently the

[1]Page 44, slightly altered in phraseology in our text.

content of what is read; (d) he reads aloud clearly, naturally and in thought units rather than by individual words; and (e) he handles books with care, opens and turns pages properly, knows the order of paging, and is able to find readily what he is looking for.

The teacher should re-read this statement of achievement levels from time to time, and the student will do well to keep it in mind while studying the sections that follow in the present chapter.

The necessity for frequent testing in the beginning year.—In order to determine the efficiency with which the child is reading, and in order, also, to recognize for immediate remedial treatment any bad reading habits he may be forming, frequent testing is desirable during the first year. A caution or two must be offered at the outset. Testing should not be permitted to inhibit a pupil's desire to read. He must not be led to view a reading lesson as in a sense an examination through which his shortcomings are to be discovered. On the other hand, tactful testing will reveal these shortcomings as nothing else will do so well. Sympathetic, practical guidance, with adequate remedial practice following testing, is of first importance. In passing, let it be said that there must be no "testing for testing's sake." Every test should be followed by definite teaching measures.

There is a rich profusion of admirable tests on the market today. For years, studies have been made of thousands and thousands of pupils to determine what achievements may reasonably be expected or attained in the several reading abilities. Certain of these tests have been standardized, and norms of achievement set up. Though no one would say that such tests and norms are to be taken as final, many of them are far more useful than the old-

fashioned ways and means of ascertaining the results of teaching and learning. A few of the more important and more serviceable of the standard tests for the first grade may be listed as follows:

Achievement	Test
1. Vocabulary—recognition of words	1. *Pressey Diagnostic Reading Tests* (*Revised*—for Grades 1A–3B—Forms A and B *Gates Primary Reading Test*—Type I *Detroit Word-Recognition Test*
2. Interpreting simple matter	2. *Haggerty Reading Examination, Sigma I* *Gates Primary Reading Tests—Type II* *Los Angeles Primary Reading Test*
3. Comprehension of what is read	3. *Starch Silent Reading Test* *Watkins Silent Reading Test for Beginners*
4. Rate of silent reading	4. *Pressey Diagnostic Reading Texts* (*Revised*)—for Grades 1A–3B—Forms A and B *Starch Silent Reading Test*
5. Rate and accuracy of oral reading	5. *Gray Standardized Oral Reading Check Tests* for Grades I and II

The teacher may easily construct her own[1] "standardized" tests, such as one or the other of the following: (a) completion; (b) true-false; (c) multiple choice; (d) matching; (e) proper selection.

Completion test.—Several incomplete sentences based upon the text read are presented to the pupils who are directed to fill in with the appropriate word. For example:

The child   was   in the house during the
months.

True-false.—Several statements—some true, some false—based upon the content of the matter read are presented with the direction to place a T or an F before each. An example:

This is the right thing to do.
This is the wrong thing to do.

Multiple choice.—The pupils are asked to indicate which among several words presented is the correct one, as, for example, in such a sentence as this:

The little girl was good, naughty, sick, tall.

Matching.—Several questions are set in one column facing another column in which a number of words appear, each one of which matches—answers—one of the questions. Thus:

Who was Humpty Dumpty?	a woman
	a man
Who was Little Bo-Peep?	a boy
	a girl

[1]See note on page 219.

Proper selection.—Here the child is directed to underscore the proper word or sentence. Examples:

1. Colors: green, old, fast
2. Animals: daisy, pig, dandelion
3. Sentences read: It is about a good little boy. It is funny. It is easy to read.

The tests thus briefly sketched are particularly useful in testing comprehension and vocabulary growth. For testing speed the teacher may set a time limit upon the reading of a given passage. Each child will be instructed to draw a line after the last word read. The count of words read in the time allowed will be the pupil's score. Or, the pupils may be directed to read without a time limit. Each pupil's rate will then be based on the amount read and the time recorded as he finishes reading. These are simple but very practical ways of creating rivalry within the group, of stimulating individual pupils to surpass their own records, and of relieving the test of "examination odor." The student is reminded that, in all testing, class, group, and individual scores should be kept with care. These should clearly indicate the progress made from day to day, week to week, and month to month.

The time to be devoted to reading.—The time allotment for reading will vary according to the viewpoint of the school at large. Conditions usually determine this matter, though the supervisor's valuation of modern methods will have a most decisive effect upon how long the teacher spends on teaching reading. In a well organized, thoroughly progressive school, reading will be the central problem in the earlier grades, at least. Every lesson will, therefore, tend to improve the reading abilities of the pupils.

If an individual person may have what is called a "mind-set"—an inclination or bent, that is, toward a definite goal—so may an institution. In that school where the mind-set is toward reading growth, not less than a half hour daily will be scheduled for regular reading instruction. It may well be that as much as an hour and a half, all told, will be so employed, though of course wisely distributed throughout the day. Principals and teachers who know their pupils will apportion the time in keeping with their pupils' needs and abilities. The length of any given lesson will be nicely adjusted to physiological and psychological conditions as these are revealed by careful observation and testing.

The daily reading periods.—In many schools two reading periods of reasonable length are scheduled daily. These periods may both be divided between the rapid group and the slow group of pupils, or one period may be devoted to reading by the whole class and the other to practice drills.

The regular reading period.—During this period reading interest is paramount, and the child's love for reading in particular is to be encouraged. A class of uniformly bright pupils may occasionally spend the period in quiet perusal of library table books. Generally, however, most beginning classes will require the teacher's immediate direction so that the reading may be progressively intelligent, rapid, and efficient. Oral and silent reading will be in order though often enough oral rendition may very probably seem to dominate the period. Teacher and pupils will participate in socializing the half-hour unless it be arranged to have the teacher read to the pupils, as has already been indicated—a far from unimportant contributing factor to reading progress. Through such a read-

ing it may be that the children's outside efforts at home or during the library period will be stimulated beyond expectation. In fortunately-equipped classrooms, where books are many and atmosphere is just right, young pupils have been known to read by themselves from two or three to fourteen or fifteen additional volumes. A bulletin board displaying the publishers' covers or book jackets is helpful, and a blackboard record of books read should be in plain view. The genuineness of these reading opportunities will be apparent.

The practice period.—The practice period continues to be of vital importance in the reading process. Again it must be emphasized that drill need not be an exercise in vain repetition. Repetition itself, of course, as has been previously stated,[1] is not to be discountenanced, for it is necessary to the establishment of habits. All the forms of practice mentioned in the preceding chapter will still be of use throughout the later months of the first year. Directed seatwork, memorization of choice bits of poetry and prose, dramatization, skillfully prepared questions requiring ready responses, puzzles, games, drawing, and construction work are all charged with useful drill possibilities. The varying needs of rapid, normal, and slow pupils should be borne in mind. The element of "pep" and "snap", and the avoidance of fatigue, in the conduct of the practice period are of great value. Above everything else are the teacher's skill and personal force. Her expertness aside, it will be her enthusiastic and optimistic interest, her understanding and encouraging sympathy, that will weigh most heavily on the side of gratifying results.

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[1]Pages 64, 65, and 77.

In the preceding chapter[1] a cautionary word was said about the use of flash cards in the practice period. The drill supplementary to the regular reading should be what Professor Gates calls intrinsic, that is, not separated in content from the lessons read but intimately associated with them—indeed, it should develop directly out of the context of what has been read on the primer or first-reader page. In the words of this educator the intrinsic device is "an integral part of the natural process of reading." He goes on to explain: "It consists of a type of organization of a reading situation which guides or impels the pupil to react in a desired way while his efforts are directed to accurate interpretation and normal enjoyment of the content."[2]

The all-important thing is that the transfer of training be effected from the drill or practice period to the reading period where it should function in the improvement of reading habits. A list of isolated words may be learned by drill, it is true, but words taken from a previously read content will produce through sheer meaning not only more immediately satisfactory results, but also much more lasting and therefore worthwhile results.

In all practice exercises the teacher should see to it, so far as possible, that (a) a felt need is clearly recognized by the child—its origin in the reading context; (b) relatively frequent and expected use is made of the matter drilled; (c) quick, ready responses are obtained for a few minutes rather than slow, dilatory responses for many minutes; (d) correct automatic responses are had at all

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[1]Pages 116–118.

[2]See pages 27–28, GATES's *The Improvement of Reading*. Also GATES's "The Supplementary Device versus the Intrinsic Method of Teaching Reading"; and *New Methods in Primary Reading*, Chapter X, "General Characteristics of a Proposed Method of Utilizing Intrinsic Devices."

times; and (e) enthusiasm and interest on the teacher's part are never absent.

Reading Instruction in the Beginning Book Stage

The pupil's first book is usually called a primer. After possibly several weeks' preliminary reading experience, varying with the pupil, of course, the young reader has the supreme pleasure of handling a bound volume, "a real book." The less pretentious matter of cards, blocks, and booklet may not yet necessarily be cast aside, but for most normal pupils it will be from now on merely incidental reading material.

The two essential features of the primer.—The primer or beginning reading book should be (a) interesting in content and appearance, and (b) simple in language.

Interesting content and appearance.—Just what is of prime interest to young children is, strange as it may seem, not as yet entirely clear. There is a difference in viewpoint between practice and theory. An analysis of several primers will exhibit wide practical variation from the results of current investigation of the kind of stories pupils like best. Poetry and fiction seem to occupy only little short of 100 per cent of reading content for the primary grades despite the fact that careful studies[1] have indicated that poetry is by no means so strong in its appeal as one might think.

Tradition and repetition probably account for the retention of much of the material which present-day children appear not particularly to enjoy. Long-standing, preconceived notions of what children ought to like rather

[1]See Fanny W. Dunn's *Interest Factors in Primary Reading Material.* Also: Huber, Bruner, and Curry's *Children's Interests in Poetry.*

than patient inquiry about what they really do care for has often been the underlying reason for much of the inappropriate matter printed in school readers. More of true animal stories and stories of daily experience, with fascinating plot, plenty of action, and an element of suspense and surprise, should be found between the covers of reading texts. Improvement, it is true, is being made, though slowly. Classroom teachers should contribute more than they do to the solution of the problem of interest.

A generally attractive appearance will add much to the child's interest in his primer. An appealing cover, with design, type, and color-scheme meeting the child's needs and tastes, is important. As much so are well-conceived and well-executed illustrations in plenty, and a clear, well-spaced type-page.

Simple language.—The primer should have distinct language values. In this particular perhaps more progress has been made toward meeting the pupil on his own ground than in the matter of content. As a rule, a primer whose selections have been written by a gifted person in close touch with childhood's ways is apt to be superior to a collection of stories from miscellaneous sources. Length of story as well as length and difficulty of sentence and word should be kept in mind.

A good many studies of vocabularies have been made with beneficial results. Scientific investigation has not yet determined just which words should be used, and their number is also still a matter of opinion. In one primer, for instance, we find a total of 195 different words and in another as many as 467.

Word repetitions likewise vary in number. An estimate of those in one book indicates that 65 per cent of the words

repeat more than ten times; in another, but 28 per cent. Interesting, too, is the ratio of new words to the page. This varies from 1.3 in one, to 5.3 in another, the average for eight primers being 2.76.

The progressive inclusion of new words is an important point. In one series the pre-primer vocabulary embraces 115 words, to which number the primer itself adds 276 and the first reader 216 more—a total of over 600 different words to be learmed during the first year. When this total is reflected against the maximum number of words used in the reading content—12,579—it acquires additional significance.

These figures of printed words should be considered in connection with the estimated number of oral words mastered by children during the five or six years prior to their going to school. According to a reliable statement, referred to on a previous page, it is estimated that approximately 1000 words are in more or less repeated oral use.[1]

In conclusion, it may be stated that of at least equal importance to the number of words, the ratio of new words to the page, and the ratio of printed to orally acquired words, is the nature of the words used in our primers and first readers. As far as possible they should represent the concrete rather than the abstract. Furthermore, it must be remembered, their mere length may not spell difficulty of recognition. The pupil's unfamiliarity with their background of meaning and association is of far greater moment.

A stenographically reported first lesson in the primer.— The following lesson shows how far pupils may advance

[1]Consult the *Twenty-Fourth Yearbook*, pages 186–193, where the list of about 1000 words will be found.

in eight or ten weeks of pre-primer work. The lesson[1] was taught on November 11, from nine o'clock to nine-thirty, to a class of 19 boys and 13 girls of average intelligence. Note the evidence of previous training as you read through this report.

PART I

TEACHER: Today, I am going to tell you a story about Alice. Alice was a little girl who lived in the country, and she had a cat that purred to her. It was a big black cat with white spots on its back. Its name was Spot and it had three kittens. Spot had a little black kitten, and Spot had a white kitten, and Spot had a little kitten that was black with white spots on its back. Altogether Alice had four cats, three kittens and one big mother cat.

One day Alice called her kittens. She said, "Come, cat. Come to dinner," but the cats said, "No. We will find a dinner." First, they went to the orchard where all apple trees grow. They looked up into the tree, and there sat a nice little bird. Spot said, "Would that bird be good for dinner?" The little kittens said, "Yes." So Spot tried to catch the bird, but do you know what the bird did? He flew away.

Then Spot said, "We'll go to the barn for our dinner." What do you suppose they looked for in the barn? [*Children suggest several things and, finally, mice.*] They saw a little mouse, and the little mouse saw them, and just as the little mouse saw them, do you know what he did? He ran away. The little kittens said, "Mew, mew, where can we go to find something for our dinner?" Spot said, "We'll go back to the house, and Alice will give us something to eat." They went back to the house and there they saw Alice with a big saucer of milk, and they all drank the milk. They all decided that home was the best place to get a dinner.

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[1]*The Elson Readers—Primer* was used. The verse read is an adaptation of the story, "Kitty Billy's Hunting Day," from *The Mayflower*, copyright The Pilgrim Press, and used by permission. The Scott, Foresman Company also accord permission to use their adaptation.

PART II

TEACHER [*continuing*]: I am going to put on the blackboard some of the things that Alice said to the cats. What was the first thing that Alice said to the cats?

CHILDREN: Get your dinner.

TEACHER: No, what was the very first thing that Alice said?

Children make several other suggestions.

TEACHER: Alice said, "Come, cat." [*Teacher writes this on the blackboard*] Who is going to read it for us?

CHILD: Alice said, "Come, cat." [*Two other children read this and point to each word as they read it.*]

TEACHER: What else did Alice say? [*Teacher writes "Come to dinner."*] Who can read all that Alice said to the cat?

CHILD: Alice said, "Come, cat. Come to dinner." [*She points to each word as she reads it. Two other children follow the first child.*]

TEACHER: What did the cat say when Alice said, "Come, cat. Come to dinner."?

CHILDREN: "No."

TEACHER: The cat said, "No." [*Teacher writes this on the blackboard as she says it.*] Read what the cat said.

CHILDREN: The cat said, "No."

TEACHER: Why did the cat say, "No"? [*Children suggest several answers.*]

TEACHER: She said, "We will find a dinner."

Up to this point the teacher has written the following on the blackboard:

Alice said, "Come, cat.
Come to dinner."
The cat said, "No.
We will find a dinner."

TEACHER: Now I would like some one to come and read once more everything that Alice said.

CHILD: Alice said, "Come cat. Come to dinner." [*Another child reads this and points to the words as he says them.*]

TEACHER: I want some one to go and read all that the cat said.

CHILD: The cat said, "No. We will find a dinner." [*The child points to the words as he reads them.*]

TEACHER: I want somebody to go and find the place where it says this.

[*Teacher holds up a chart which says,* "Alice".]

CHILDREN: "Alice." (*One child matches the card with the word on the board.*)

The same is done with the cards, "The cat said", "No", "We will find a dinner", "Come to dinner", "Alice", "No", "Find", "Said", "Will", "Dinner", "To".

The children are also asked to select a certain card from the entire pack.

The sound of the first letter in each word is given by the children.

All of the cards are now standing on the ledge of the blackboard.

TEACHER: I'd like two children to go and find the card which I call. See who can get it first. I'd like two people to go and find the card which says "Alice". [*Teacher calls on two children.*] 1—2—3. [*Children run to get the card. The same procedure is followed in having the children find the words* "No", "Come", "Said", "Will", "Find".]

PART III

TEACHER: I am going to ask you to take your book. Let me see how carefully you open it. Turn the pages until you come to the story of Alice and her cat. [*Teacher lets all the children try to read to themselves, just as they choose. After about two minutes the teacher calls them to order.*] Children, let me see your eyes. Tell me what the number of the page is.

CHILDREN: Number 7.

TEACHER: I am coming to see how many children have page 7 [*Teacher writes number 7 on the blackboard.*] Now, I'd like everybody here to find the place where it says "Alice said, 'Come, cat'". I am going around to see how many of you have found it. [*One child makes a mistake, so the teacher points out on the blackboard the part which is giving him trouble.*]

TEACHER: Now, let me see if you can find the place where it

says, "Come to dinner—come to dinner—come to dinner." Now, I am going to see if any one can read the part that says, "Come, cat. Come to dinner." [*Teacher points it out on the blackboard and asks children to read it from their books.*] We'll ask Steven to read it to us because Steven certainly has worked hard today. Now, this time, the rest of you will have to read inside of you so that we will not hear you. We want to hear Steven read out loud. [*Steven reads it three times, each time more distinctly.*] Is there some one else who would like to read all that Alice said?

CHILD: Alice said, "Come, cat. Come to dinner."

TEACHER: Who is going to read just what the cat said?

CHILD: The cat said, "No. We will find our dinner."

TEACHER: Now, read it as though you were talking.

Child reads it aloud again, teacher reads it aloud, child reads it aloud again. Following this is a brief study of a picture which illustrates the story of Alice and her cats.

Interpretative questions and suggestions.—1. How did the teacher motivate her lesson? 2. Where did you find her appealing to the pupils' auditory sense? 3. To their visual sense? 4. At what points did she employ the principle of self-activity? 5. Note the appeal to the spirit of rivalry. 6. What use was made of the blackboard? 7. Note the card-matching device. 8. How was silent reading encouraged? 9. What suggestion did the teacher make to stimulate expressive reading—not the mere repetition of words? 10. Why was the picture study introduced at the end?

Work with the first reader.—The work begun in the primer is continued in the first reader. The language is not much more difficult, the same words being repeated for the most part, and other new words, with as far as possible familiar elements such as phonograms, con-

spicuously present. Not only the vocabulary and other language factors are within the pupil's power but the content is also within his comprehension and the limits of his interest. As in the primer, provision is made, for parallel exercises in phonics, word and phrase drills, seat-work of various kinds, picture study, dramatization, and other supplementary methods and devices. In various recently issued readers for this second half of the first year emphasis is laid on silent reading, but the practical teacher will need to check results with oral rendition besides utilizing intrinsic practice devices. Immature readers are probably still a large group in most first-year classes. Many beginning books therefore emphasize the recreatory purpose of reading during either an oral reading period or a library reading period, or both.

First-grade oral reading.—There is especial need of thoughtful motivation in early reading days, as the following stenographically reported lesson illustrates. It will be seen that the teacher used pictures and toys to stimulate interest. The lesson was to be not only interesting, however, but really valuable. Around the room had been placed a border on which were drawings of several toys, such as a wheelbarrow, a clown, an elephant, a soldier with a gun, a doll, and a teddy-bear. On each of two previous days, the children had conversed about these toys during a period of approximately half an hour. Children who had similar toys brought them to school and compared them with the pictures. The class was made up of thirty normal first-year pupils, both boys and girls. The time was the week before Christmas, the hour ten o'clock, and the duration of the period somewhat under forty minutes. Before the

reading began, the children dramatized the actions of several of the toys. The pupils were then invited to place their chairs in a circle and open their books. As the lesson proceeded, the teacher made a number of mental notes to remind her of certain difficulties the children disclosed while expressing themselves. These she planned to take up in a later separate period.

PART I

TEACHER: We've played being other things, but we haven't played being a doll.

CHILD: Maybe we could play being a doll in here.

TEACHER: All right. Who is going to be a doll? I want first a doll that can walk. Let's ask . What do you have to do to a doll if you want her to walk?

CHILDREN: Wind her. [*Teacher pretends to wind the doll up. The child walks very stiffly, as a doll would walk. The same procedure is followed with two other children walking.*]

TEACHER: Fine. Thank you. Now, I would like to have a doll that can talk. [*One child volunteers. Teacher bends her over, and she says, "Mamma".*]

CHILD: I want to be one that sleeps. [*Teacher supports another child as she puts her head back and goes to sleep.*]

TEACHER: Who can tell me a story that I can put on the blackboard, a story that would tell me that you are a doll?

CHILDREN: I am a doll.

PART II

TEACHER: Good. I am going to put that up here on the blackboard. [*Teacher prints,* "I am a doll."]

TEACHER: Gertrude, go and read it for us, please.

GERTRUDE: "I am a doll."

TEACHER: Can you read it aloud so that we can hear it? [*Child does so.*] Will you hand the pointer to another doll.

ANOTHER CHILD: "I am a doll."

TEACHER: Now, I'd like a doll who can do something to tell us a story that we can put on the blackboard. Jean.

JEAN: I say, "Mamma" [*Teacher puts* "I say, 'Mamma'" *on the blackboard.*]

TEACHER: Who can read all that is on the blackboard? [*Child reads and points to each word as she reads it.*]

TEACHER: Good. Who else can read that? [*Another child does so.*] Who can tell us another story about a doll and what she does?

CHILD: I go to sleep.

TEACHER: Let's ask Natalie to read these three stories for us. Natalie, let's wait until everybody is ready. [*Natalie reads.*] Can you read them a little louder so we all can hear?

TEACHER: Who can tell us something else?

CHILD: I am a doll who can walk.

TEACHER: Suppose we put it another way.

CHILD: I can walk. [*Teacher prints:* "I can walk."]

TEACHER: Stephen, suppose you read it for us. [*Stephen reads.*] I like the way Stephen read this because when he said what the doll said, he said it exactly as a doll would say it. Will you read it again, Stephen? [*Stephen does so.*] Good. [*Another child reads the same thing.*]

This time, let's have something from the boys because they don't like to be dolls so much, do they? John, what are you going to be?

JOHN: I could be a tin soldier.

[*Children suggest several other things which they would like to be, namely, rabbit, clown, elephant, etc.*]

TEACHER: Let's watch Billie do as the elephant does. [*Billie walks very slowly and heavily as the elephant does. Another child imitates the teddy bear; another, the tin soldier; another, the rabbit.*]

TEACHER: Which story should we put on the board? [*Children decide on a story of the tin soldier.*] What shall we say about the tin soldier?

CHILDREN: I am a tin soldier.

TEACHER: Who can tell me what sound the word *tin* begins with? [*Children do so.*] Who can tell me what sound the word *soldier* begins with? [*Children do so.*] Who is going to read about the tin soldier? [*Child reads.*] Good. Let's have some one else read about the tin soldier. [*Child does so.*]

Who is going to tell me something else about the tin soldier—something that he can do?

CHILD: I can march.

TEACHER: What sound does the word *march* begin with? [*Children give the sound of* mmmmmm.]

TEACHER: Frank, will you read this for us? [*Frank does so.*] Read it as if you were talking. [*Child does so.*] Who can tell me something about the tin soldier?

CHILD: I can shoot my gun.

TEACHER. Is there a picture of a soldier shooting his gun there? [*Points to blackboard.*]

CHILDREN: Yes. [*Children point it out.*]

TEACHER *prints:* "I can shoot my gun."

TEACHER: Who is going to read it for us? [*One child reads.*] Now, who is going to tell us the whole story about the tin soldier and what he can do? Beatrice. [*Beatrice does so.*]

TEACHER: Good. This time, I want somebody to do just what this story says. [*Teacher points to "I am a doll" and "I go to sleep."*] [*Child does as this story says.*] This time I am going to give the pointer to some one and ask her to point to what she is going to be and what she is going to do. [*Child points to* "I am a doll. I say, 'Mamma.'"]

Some one else come and point to what she is going to be and what she is going to do. Billie!

BILLIE: I don't want to.

TEACHER: Why?

BILLIE: I did something before.

TEACHER: Don't you want to do something, Billie?

BILLIE: No!

TEACHER: Well, I hope for your sake Santa Claus isn't looking in just now. [*Teacher calls on another child to point to what she is going to be and what she is going to do. All of the children but Billie seem to be anxious to take part in the lesson.*]

PART III

TEACHER: Now, I need some one to go and take the pointer and point to a lot of words. [*Teacher calls on another child and asks him to point to the words,* "doll", "go", "can", "sleep",

"am".] Now, look at the part about the tin soldier and point to the word *march.* Now, point to the word *gun.* What other word in the story about the doll starts with the same sound as *gun?*

CHILDREN: Go.

TEACHER: This time, let's have two children point to the same words in the story of the doll. See who can point the fastest to the word which I call. [*Teacher selects two children to point to the words which she calls. Billie is, now, anxious to try.*] Let's have two children point to words in the tin soldier's story. I know Santa Claus is going to be very glad to see Billie working again. [*Teacher calls words, and each child points to them. The children try to point to them first. Another child keeps score. Teacher then has children rub out the stories, using the following procedure.*]

TEACHER: I want you to rub out the story that tells you something which a doll can do. [*Child rubs out,* "I say, 'Mamma'".] I want somebody now to rub out the story that tells you what a tin soldier can do. [*Child rubs out,* "I can shoot my gun."] *This procedure is followed until all parts are rubbed out.*

A few questions.—1. What preparation had the teacher made for her lesson? 2. In what way had the children been prepared? 3. What advantage was gained by placing the chairs in a circle? 4. To what extent did the teacher use composition to help appreciation? 5. What advance step is taken in Part 2, and Part 3? 6. Where did silent reading play its part in this lesson? 7. How wisely or unwisely did the teacher handle Billie's case?

First-grade silent reading.—In this earliest year silent reading will be taught, generally, through (a) directions leading to purposeful action, and (b) wide recreatory reading.

Directions leading to purposeful action.—The action indicated may be looking out for the street cars, keeping moving in crowds, maintaining silence during fire-drills,

all of which suggest reading matter obviously important in the daily conduct of life. They present natural reading situations, permit of self-activity, afford opportunity for problem-solving, aid rapid comprehension, enable the teacher to observe the pupils' reading progress, and lead the way to highly satisfactory intrinsic[1] practice exercises.

They are easy to prepare and interesting to carry out. Their basic principle is the basic principle of all reading from the very beginning, namely, understanding, comprehension.

Wide recreatory reading.—Recreatory reading will be more particularly prominent, of course, in the later than in the earlier half of the first year. The class library table is now brought into use. Not only is the pupil delighted, since reading is an active process, but he is instructed at the same time. He is learning to read by reading, and he feels as well as knows that he is getting on. Skill and culture are happily fostered. In the telling of what has been read, in a subsequent oral English period, there will be a manifest social purpose.

The teacher should keep watch over this kind of reading, however, for there may be dawdling, and dawdling is not conducive to efficient reading. This and other undesirable habits may be forming instead of good habits being encouraged. For example, the child may be reading with a very narrow span of recognition, or he may be reverting to eye-movements which the teacher had hoped no longer persisted—regressions, perhaps, or more numerous fixations than there should be. Or, he may be showing a tendency toward lip-movement and other physical accompaniments of poor silent reading. He may even be

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[1]See page 139.

acquiring, simply, the bad habits of inattention or scatter-brained attention.

The child's span of recognition should be much greater in silent reading than in oral reading. His speed in silent reading will therefore normally exceed his oral reading rate, while better comprehension, and of wider range, should also generally be expected.

The teaching of phonic and phonetic elements.—In the beginning book period the teaching of phonic elements may presuppose much or little prior informal training. As has been said elsewhere,[1] the time for the teaching of phonics or phonetics[2] varies greatly with the schools. A recent analysis[3] of eighteen well-known reading manuals dating from 1900 on indicates that a majority of current reading systems provide for a certain amount of preliminary training before the formal phonic work is begun. Though generally postponing the introduction of formal lessons in phonics, the various systems nevertheless agree upon the value of the study, even when differing somewhat as to procedure.

Sight words and phonograms.—During the preliminary weeks the pupil has become acquainted, we recall, with between fifty and eighty words learned at sight, that is, without other help than that of visual contact with the words as wholes following their introduction through stories and conversation. In most cases the teacher soon proceeds to an analysis of the word into its more obvious elements, as, for example, *sing* gives the letter *s* and the

[1]Page 32–34.

[2]Phonics is a study of sounds whereas phonetics is a study of printed symbols for these sounds.

[3]*Twenty-Fourth Yearbook*, pages 87–88.

final sound and symbol *-ing*. This phonogram[1] is highly useful in the synthesis or building up of new words, such as *king*, *ring*, and *wing*.

Phonic and phonetic elements currently taught.—The following phonic and phonetic elements are taught in the primer stage of many of the current systems: (a) simple consonants: *b*, *f*, *h*, *l*, *m*, *s*, *t*, hard *g*, *p*, *d*, *w*, hard *c*, *k*, *j*, *u*, *r*, (*y* and *v* in either the primer or the first reader); (b) compound consonants: *sh*, *wh*, *ch*; (c) long and short vowel sounds in either the primer or the first reader, the tendency being to teach vowel sounds in the phonogram word-endings, such as *-ion*, *-ing*, rather than as separate phonic elements; (d) phonograms or monosyllabic word-endings used in word series: *-at*, *-ill*, *-ack*, *-all*, *-an*, *-en*, *-and*, *-ell*, *-in*, *-og*, *-un*; (e) suffixes: *-ing*, *-er*, *-e*. Silent letters are reserved for the second year. Diacritical marks are not used in most systems during the first two years. They receive attention when dictionary study is formally begun in the third or fourth year.

The use of phonics and phonetics.—A word upon the use of phonic and phonetic training in the teaching of reading seems necessary here. Professor William S. Gray[2] has

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[1]In some reading systems the phonogram is defined as a consonant-vowel rather than a vowel-consonant combination. Thus, the word *cat* may be divided into either *c-at* or *ca-t*. While the prevailing practice seems to incline toward the first, there is strong theoretic advocacy of the second of these blends. The initial blend controls more new words but the final blend seems to be acceptable for the following reasons: Syllables of English words usually begin with a consonant, a knowledge of beginning phonograms making easier, therefore, the recognition of words. Ready recognition of the beginning of a word facilitates rapid silent reading. Purer word-sounding is attainable since in initial consonant blending a pupil often vocalizes such letters as *b*, *d*, and *g*, these becoming *buh*, *duh*, and *guh*.—Consult PARKER's *Types of Elementary Teaching and Learning*, pages 115–116, and OSBURN's "The Relative Value of Letter Sounds and Consonants."

[2]In "Summary of Investigations Relating to Reading."

summarized expert opinion upon this problem, in substance, as follows: There seems to be good reason for maintaining that while such training aids word recognition and pronunciation, as we have already said,[1] it does not necessarily improve comprehension but rather tends to center attention upon mere words. Furthermore, though phonetic training may help some pupils it does not help others. Many children are able of themselves to analyze words and to grasp new ones. Phonetic training may develop accurate recognition and fluency without developing the power to attack new word difficulties.[2] In expert hands, however, phonics and phonetics produce satisfying results.

Blending.—Blending is an important part of phonic training. The synthesis or building up of new words depends quite as much upon the proper union or blending of the phonogram with initial consonants as upon the careful analysis of the sight word in order to separate the phonogram. The following brief report of a student-teacher's good work will indicate a method of procedure with a class in the second half of the first year.

It was shortly before dismissal that a certain 1 B class of boys became quite restless. The children had had a great deal of manual and thought work in the course of the morning, and had just completed a silent reading lesson on the story of "The Lark, the Fox, the Cat, and the Snake", in the *Progressive Road*

[1]Pages 32–34.

[2]In May, 1928, a report by E. K. Sexton and J. S. Herron, upon the Newark Phonics Experiment, seemed to make clear that more depends upon the teacher than upon the method. Good results in reading were obtained by the same teacher both with and without the use of phonics. Likewise, with other teachers, poor results followed, phonics or no phonics. It was teaching ability that counted in every case. This experiment also indicated that phonics is of much greater value if begun after the first five months of beginning reading and still greater if postponed to the second grade.

to Reading Series, Book I.[1] The student-teacher saw clearly that if she wished to direct the superfluous energy so extremely apparent, she would have to appeal to the interest of her children. Accordingly, she presented a phonic game which was rather ingenious. She selected the word *at* from the reading lesson and wrote it on the blackboard. The boy who recognized it first was chosen father of the family. The teacher then said that they would see how many children Mr. At had. Whereupon she had the various pupils sound the first names and give the letter equivalents of the names of Mr. At's children. After the consonant sounds *b, c, f, h, m, n, p, r,* and *s* had been given, the student-teacher made a list on the board. She said that if any child could read his first and last names together, he might be one of Mr. At's children.

After the At family was assembled in front of the room, it consisted of ten members. The name of each child was written above his head, and several seated pupils—children not of the At family—were asked to name Mr. At's ten children. The lesson was concluded by a bright youngster who, recognizing the new words, called the At children by name and invited them to be seated. In my opinion the success of the lesson was largely due to the utilization of the innate play instinct.

A few questions.—1. What criticism might have been made of a regularly appointed teacher for beginning this lesson in the way indicated? 2. To what extent was this lesson period socialized?[2] 3. Is the concluding sentence justified? 4. What other ways and means might have been employed?

A Series of Reading and Related Lessons

The following lessons will show the point to which first grade pupils may be expected to have arrived toward the close of the year.

[1]Silver, Burdett and Company, publishers.

[2]Teacher and pupils taking part.

An oral reading lesson.—The pupils—15 boys and 17 girls—were of normal intelligence. They had had the advantage of excellent kindergarten training followed by pre-book story and discussion work, library table help, adequate drill, and, above all, skillful, sympathetic teachers. The student should note the ways in which the teacher encouraged expressive oral reading, afforded opportunity for individual initiative, stimulated extensive silent reading, and sought to develop a social spirit throughout the period. The whole lesson was staged in a natural situation where a group of friends met with a common interest.

PART I[1]

TEACHER: Let us see who is going to read us a story today. [*Children raise their hands.*] Where is Shirley? [*Shirley raises her hand.*] Do you remember the story Shirley told us the other day?

PUPILS: Yes, Miss R—.

TEACHER: What was it about?

PUPILS: (1) About a little girl. (2) About a little kitten.

TEACHER: Did you like it?

PUPILS: Yes   Very much, Miss R—. [*Shirley looks for the story.*]

TEACHER: If you look for it in the index, you will find out where the story is more quickly.

PUPILS: Yes .

SHIRLEY: [*Begins to read in the open book the story of "The Kitten Who Forgot."*][2]

TEACHER: [*After Shirley had read a sentence or two*] Come, stand by me. I think people can hear you better. [*Shirley walks to the front of the room and stands by Miss R—.*]

SHIRLEY: [*Begins again and continues to read the entire story*

[1]The stenographic report of this lesson is slightly adapted.

[2]The story may be found in *The Progressive Road to Reading—Story Steps*, pages 40–47.

in which a little girl and her kitten are the chief characters. It seems that the kitten, through association with the little girl's dog, has never learned how to ask for milk in the proper way. Into the yard it runs to find out. There it meets a hen, a duck, and a turkey, but to no avail. Finally, it runs across a big cat who informs it that "Meow! Meow!" is the appropriate form of words. Upon the kitten's return, the little girl extends the saucer of milk.]

PUPILS: Thank you, Shirley.

TEACHER: Did you like that very much?

PUPILS: Yes. I liked when the kitten said, "Bow! Wow! Wow!" When the hen said, "Cluck! Cluck! Cluck!"

TEACHER: Is that what the kitten should say?

PUPILS: No. "Meow! Meow! Meow!"

TEACHER: Do you remember what we said? We said that if we went to another country we would not be able to understand what they said. . Let us have another story that we all can enjoy. . . Can you read one, Hope? [*Child says*, "Yes, Miss R—."] Hope will read aloud for us. [*Hope opens her book to story about a little red hen and the fowl's interest in a seed, wheat, and bread. A pig, a dog, and a cat are also important characters.*] . . Do you notice how careful Hope is of her book? What did she do to show you that she is very careful of her book?

PUPIL: She covered it.

HOPE: [*Reads the first part of the story.*]

TEACHER: How did the dog say it?

PUPILS: "Bow! Wow! Wow!" . "Not I".

TEACHER: Say, "Not I", as they would say it. [*Children say it more expressively.*]

GERTRUDE: "Not I". It sounds like a lazy person. [*Gertrude says it as she thinks it should be said.*]

TEACHER: Let some one else say it now. [*A few of the children say it.*] All right, Hope, you say it. [*Hope says it.*] How did they say it? [*Children say it in unison.*] All right. Thank you, Hope.

PUPILS: Thank you, Hope.

TEACHER: Did you enjoy this story?

PUPILS: Yes. Very, very much.

PART II

TEACHER: Have you enjoyed other stories?

PUPILS: "Little Red Riding Hood." . . "The Brownie Story". "Jack and the Beanstalk."

TEACHER: Do you enjoy the stories in this book? [*Teacher holds up a reader.*]

PUPILS: Yes, Miss R—. They're lovely.

TEACHER: [*Holds up another book.*]

PUPILS: There are poems in that book.

TEACHER: Doesn't a poem tell you a story?

PUPILS: (1) Yes. (2) No.

TEACHER: Are poems stories?

PUPILS: (1) No. (2) Yes.

TEACHER: What is a story?

PUPILS: (1) A story is long. (2) I have a book home. There are only three pages to the story. (3) I have one with only one page.

TEACHER: That is short. Some stories are short and some poems are long. Is a poem a story?

PUPILS: (1) No. (2) Yes.

TEACHER: There is a poem here about "My Shadow", and there is one about "The Swing". There is one about "The Wind". It isn't a story, but a poem. It rhymes; but because it rhymes, can't you call it a story?

PUPILS: (1) No. (2) Yes. (3) The story about Mary Jane rhymes.

TEACHER: Is that a story?

PUPILS: (1) Yes. (2) No.

TEACHER: Does it tell you about a girl, and what she does?

PUPILS: Yes.

TEACHER: Can the Mary Jane poem be a story as well as a poem?

PUPILS: (1) No. (2) Yes.

TEACHER: How many think it can? [*A number of children raise their hands.*] How many people think it cannot be a story if it is a poem? [*A few of the children raise their hands.*]

PART III

TEACHER: Who else is going to tell a story? [*Children raise hands.*] Let us ask Helen to read. [*Helen looks for the story and finds it.*]

HELEN: [*Reads a story about a lonely little brown dog who sought to live with a little boy.*]

TEACHER: Remember what we said this morning. If a little dog came to your home, how would you say it?

PUPILS: "Hello, little Dog!"

TEACHER: Let us see how Helen would say it.

HELEN: "Hello, little Dog!" [*Child continues reading her story.*]

PUPILS: Thank you, Helen.

TEACHER: Did you enjoy that story?

PUPILS: (1) Yes. (2) It was cute.

TEACHER: Would you like that to happen to you?

PUPILS: (1) Yes. (2) No.

TEACHER: What would you do to help the dog?

PUPILS: (1) Let him in. (2) Pick him up and give him some milk.

TEACHER: Do dogs like milk?

PUPILS: (1) No. (2) They like meat. [*Children begin telling about their dogs.*]

PART IV

TEACHER: There is a book downstairs that tells you how to take care of a dog. I think we had better take the book out of the library and read it, and then you will know how to take care of a dog.

PUPILS: A lady saw a cat, and she said the cat had no home, and this lady took him home.

TEACHER: I wonder what the lady gave him.

PUPILS: (1) Meat. (2) A cat came along the street, and I was going to take him up in the house, but a lady took him.

TEACHER: I am going to add this book to the library; then we will have eleven books.

PUPIL: We have ten, and one more will make eleven.

TEACHER: How many people will like this book? [*Teacher holds up a book. Pupils raise hands.*] Did you ever hear stories from this book? [*Teacher holds up another book.*]

PUPILS: Yes.

TEACHER: Here's one that I especially like. [*Teacher shows pictures of story.*] This is another one I like. It reminds me of last October. Churning butter. Our butter was never very yellow. . Why? We put too much salt in it. Here's another library book I want to add. That will make twelve. [*Teacher opens book.*]

PUPIL: I have that book at home.

TEACHER: [*Shows picture in book.*] Who is this over here?

PUPILS: Little Bo-Peep.

"Little Bo-Peep.
Has lost her sheep,
And can't tell where to find them.
Leave them alone,
And they'll come home,
Wagging their tails behind them."

TEACHER: [*Shows another picture.*]

PUPILS: Humpty Dumpty.

TEACHER: Here is another funny one. [*Shows picture.*]

PUPILS: Hey Diddle Diddle.

TEACHER: Here is a story that you will like very much. It is about a red hen's nest. Can you see what is in the nest? [*Shows picture.*]

PUPILS: (1) A white kitten. (2) The kitten did not know it wasn't her nest.

TEACHER: No. Here is the one who told the hen what to do.

PUPILS: Owl.

TEACHER: He is very wise.

PART V

TEACHER: Everybody reading? Everybody sitting down? Perhaps I had better stand up. [*Teacher reads story.*] Have you ever heard the wind?

PUPILS: Yes.

TEACHER: Did it ever sound to you like a man riding by?

PUPILS: (1) Yes. (2) No. [*Children try to imitate the sound of the wind.*]

TEACHER: What does the wind sound like at night?

PUPILS: (1) Like a locomotive. (2) Like an electric train.

TEACHER: Is there another one you would like from this book?

PUPILS: Is there an index in that book?

TEACHER: Yes. "My Shadow" is on page 32.

PUPILS: Read that.

TEACHER: [*Reads poem.*] [*Pupils are very attentive. They chime in at the end.*] Let us have one from this book. Do you like this book?

PUPILS: Yes.

TEACHER: Is King John in this book? Let us ask John. He knows this book very well. [*John isn't so sure.*] Let us look in the index. "The King's Breakfast" is in this book. I think that is the one I marked. No, I marked "Mary Jane."

[*Teacher reads the story. She shows the pictures to the children as she tells the story.*]

PUPILS: She's crying on the bed.

TEACHER: Do you see the person here?

PUPILS: (1) The doctor. (2) What is the matter? (3) She didn't like rice pudding. (4) I do not see her crying on the bed. [*Teacher shows child.*] (5) What is the matter? (6) She wouldn't eat her rice pudding.

TEACHER: Would you do that?

PUPILS: (1) No. (2) I wouldn't.

TEACHER: I have seen some children who push their bowl of oatmeal away.

PUPILS: I don't.

TEACHER: How about the cod-liver oil?

PUPILS: I love it.

TEACHER: Do you take it?

PUPILS: (1) Yes. (2) I take emulsion. (3) One day I saw a house with one window just full of it.

TEACHER: I want you to stand up for a minute. [*Children stand.*] Let us see how quick you are. I am going to do some-

thing, and you do it after me, and then I am going to show you something that you are going to enjoy. If you have a book, just put it on the seat. Can you do this? [*Teacher leads pupils, who follow her as she swiftly places hands on head, on shoulders, etc.*]

Interpretative questions and suggestions.—1. In what way did the teacher encourage a proper understanding of the important parts of a book, such as the index? In what way, the care of a book? 2. Observe how the teacher sought to create an audience situation. 3. What can be said for the type of story read from the standpoint of the grade and age level of the pupils? 4. What evidence of preparation was there on the teacher's part? 5. At what points was concert work introduced? To what degree was it probably helpful or necessary? 6. Why did the teacher leave the discussion of the poems and stories indecisive? What object was thus attained? 7. What relation—correlation, as it is technically called—was established with number work? Note how naturally it was done. What correlation with other class activities? 8. Note how the lesson period closed.

A conversation lesson[1].—The school in which this lesson was given is situated on the brow of a hill overlooking a terraced park. Various buildings and other prominent structures are clearly visible on a sunny day. The pupils were the same as those of the preceding lesson.

TEACHER: You are going to see something very beautiful. [*Teacher shows children the picture of the school.*]

PUPILS: (1) Oh! (2) Ah! (3) Did you take the picture of our school? (4) I see the park. (5) I see the pole. (6) It is very nice. (7) Did you take that picture?

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[1]Slightly adapted.

TEACHER: No. Some one took the picture and lent it to me so that you could see it. We knew you were interested in your school.

PUPILS: (1) You can see it is our school. (2) You can see it better in the picture.

TEACHER: Why?

PUPILS: (1) Because you do not have to look so far up. (2) Where did the person who took the picture stand?

TEACHER: In the park. Do you remember where we went in the park?

PUPILS: Down there.

TEACHER: If we looked up, we would see the school like this. [*Teacher points to one side of picture.*] Here is our building also. This is the other side.

PUPILS: Who took it?

TEACHER: A man took it. [*Children look more intently.*] Yes, a man who stood in the park took it. I want you to look at your school in this picture and then think of the school on Amsterdam Avenue that you pass on the trolley car. Also think of the one on 145th Street that you pass when walking with your mother. Think how beautiful our school is.

PUPILS: Ours is the most beautiful in the world. [*Teacher looks somewhat dubious.*] Yes, it is, Miss——. Because it is the best school in the world.

TEACHER: Think of the boy who marks this school with chalk. What do you think?

PUPILS: (1) I would be ashamed of myself. (2) I think it would be very careless. (3) I think it is something to be ashamed of.

TEACHER: Would you like me to show you where we stood the other day?

PUPILS: (1) Yes. [*Teacher shows pupils the sixth floor.*] (2) If we went up another flight we would be in the tower.

TEACHER: Yes, remember I showed you the stairs that went up to the tower?

PUPILS: Yes.

TEACHER: When you looked out of this window, do you remember what you saw?

PUPILS: (1) East River. (2) Bridge.

TEACHER: Do you remember what we saw with a round top.

PUPILS: The Cathedral.

TEACHER: Perhaps if you look out of this window you will be able to see the same dome. [*Children look out of the window.*]

PUPILS: (1) I can see it. (2) I can't see it.

TEACHER: If you look straight down, I think you can see it.

PUPILS: (1) I do. (2) Through the window it looks funny.

TEACHER: All right, let us sit down now.

PUPILS: The man was standing so far back that it looks small, doesn't it?

TEACHER: Yes, it does. What shall I tell the person who lent me this picture?

PUPILS: (1) "Thank you very much for giving us the picture." (2) "It is very pretty."

TEACHER: I would say more than that.

PUPILS: (1) "We like it." (2) "It is very beautiful."

TEACHER: What part of the building do you like best?

PUPILS: (1) The tower. (2) The whole thing.

TEACHER: I wonder where our room is. [*Children look but are apparently not able to tell.*] It is on the first floor. [*Teacher points out where it should be.*] You cannot see it because the bushes are in the way. Notice the top of the tower. You liked the beautifully cut stone on the towers at City College, didn't you? I think you will see the same thing on our tower. [*Children look and evidently enjoy what they see.*] How many stories are in our building?

PUPILS: (1) Six. (2) Seven.

TEACHER: How many did we pass going up in the elevator?

PUPILS: Six.

TEACHER: Where did we see the weather-cock?

PUPILS: When we went for a walk last week?

TEACHER: When we went out looking at the towers of the college we looked across the stadium and saw one. What have we on the tower?

PUPILS: A flag.

[*Teacher reads the story, "Towers That Reached the Sky."*]

Interpretative questions and suggestions.—1. In what way was the selection of the picture a wise starting point?

2. Note the various places at which the lesson seemed especially natural and informal. 3. What advantage, if any, would have been gained by the pupils' reading silently rather than by the teacher's reading?

A drill lesson.—The pupils were selected from the group taught in the preceding lessons. The time taken was ten minutes. Note the "snap" evident throughout.

TEACHER: Everybody—Sit! One! Two! Three! [*Children sit in orderly fashion.*] I want you to leave your chairs, and if you are short to take the front seats, but if you are tall to take the larger seats. [*Children take seats quietly.*] I think we will have time for a game. I will put some sound-letters on the board.

[*Teacher writes on board:*

s c m b k d ing ow r at t sh an ake

As the teacher puts the symbols on the board, the pupils pronounce the sounds.]

Let's take the people in this row.

Victoria, take a ticket for *-ing.* [*Child goes to the board and erases* -ing.]

Chester, take a ticket for *m.* [*Child goes to the board and erases* m.]

Margaret, take a ticket for *k.* [*Child goes to the board and erases* k.]

The lesson continues in this way until every child has received a ticket. The teacher gives the sound but not the letter name. The row being completed, the teacher gives the command, "Giddy-ap, pony!", *and the children run around the room. At the command,* "Who-a", *they halt. At the command,* "Have your dinner," *the pupils imitate a pony eating.* "Giddy-ap, pony", "Who-a," "Turn around, pony", "Back to your stable, pony". *The children obey all of these commands. Each child has a chance. Everything is said and done with vigor.*

A few questions.—1. What specific aim did the teacher of this lesson have? 2. What advantage did the play-spirit afford?

Review.—The initial or beginning period of book reading seeks to lead the child from the oral to the written symbol as readily as possible. During this period interesting content and simple language are before the pupil. Daily reading periods are provided, with carefully prepared practice suited to the group and individual needs of the children. The pre-primer work should be evident in the advancement made. Oral and silent reading, with frequent testing, mark the child's progress.

STUDY PROBLEMS

A. Discussion Topics

1. "Oral reading is taught for good pronunciation, good expression, etc. I have heard people say that a child who reads with good expression has the thought. He interprets the meaning, therefore his expression is good. In a great many cases I think this is true. Oral reading is giving thought from the printed page."—*An experienced teacher's opinion.*

2. A young teacher sums up her method of drill with a beginning class, thus:

> I began the lesson by showing the picture of a park. I asked one child to name it. After that I asked the children to what park they had ever gone. I then asked them how they reached the park. Most of them had gone by train. I told them that the train started very slowly and made the sound, *ch*, *ch*, *ch*. When the train went quickly we heard the whistle blow, *toot-toot*. When it stopped we heard the sound of *ding-dong*. In front of the room I had a piece of oak-tag on which the train story was written. I then told the pupils that this was a train story, and read it to them, pointing to the words as I read. I read it several times, always pointing to the words. Then I asked questions on the text. "What does the train say when it is ready to go?" The answer was, "Ch". "How does the train go when it says, 'Toot-toot'?" I was careful to read the phrases with proper emphasis. The phonic drill was on *ch* and *toot-toot*.

This was aided by means of perception cards and games. The games I used were the fish game, the umbrella game, and placing cards alongside of words on the piece of oak-tag. Very many games were required to keep the children interested and to give them the proper amount of drill. The words studied were *train* and *starts*. The word groups were *ready to go*, *the train*, *very fast*. Toward the end of the week most of the children could read a whole line from the chart or from their perception cards. All of them could recognize the phonic elements *ch* and *toot-toot*, and the words *train* and *starts*.

From the standpoint of effective practice to what extent may this type of lesson be approved?

B. GROUP RESEARCH TOPICS

1. A New Primer for Progressive Classrooms, prepared eclectically after a study of several primers now in use.

2. Several first readers compared as to vocabulary, a check-up being made with the words listed in THORNDIKE'S *The Teacher's Word Book*.

3. Phonetic difficulties discovered in a class of first-grade pupils. Suggested intrinsic devices to overcome these difficulties.

4. Seatwork suggestions as found in a number of reading manuals.

5. A report upon Chapter X, "Devices for Teaching Primary Reading", in STORMZAND and MCKEE'S *The Progressive Primary Teacher*.

6. A report upon SWEET'S *Sounds of English;* and his *Primer of Phonetics*.

C. INDIVIDUAL RESEARCH TOPICS

1. Learning sight words. Read DAVIS'S *The Technique of Teaching*, pages 106–110.

2. "Detailed Analysis of First-Grade Reading", Chapter III, in BUSWELL'S *Fundamental Reading Habits—A Study of Their Development*.

3. "Beginning Reading", Chapter V, in PARKER'S *Types of Elementary Teaching and Learning*.

4. "Study of the Perceptual Process in Reading by the

Tachistoscopic (or Brief Exposure) Method", pages 110–116, in FREEMAN's *Experimental Education.*

5. "Perception in Reading", Chapters III–V, in HUEY's *The Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading.*

6. "Perceptual and Interpretative Processes in Reading", Chapter VII, in SMITH's *The Reading Process.*

7. A series of tests in first-grade reading.—*Primer* and *First Reader*, by EMMA M. BOLENIUS.

8. Testing children during the initial period.—*Twenty-Fourth Yearbook*, pages 233 ff.

9. Silent reading testing exercises.—*The Silent Reading Hour —First Reader*, by G. T. BUSWELL and W. H. WHEELER.

10. "A Basic List of Phonics for Grades I and II," by M. VOGEL, E. JAYCOX, and C. W. WASHBURNE. This is a study of twenty current primers and first readers to determine the fifty commonest vowel-consonant phonograms, the frequency of initial double consonants, etc.

11. "The Relative Value of Letter Sounds and Consonants," by W. J. OSBURN, State Department of Public Instruction, Madison, Wis., Sept. 1923. Send for this circular, which is a study of the first 2500 words in THORNDIKE's *The Teacher's Word Book* for frequency of occurence of vowels, initial and final consonants, and consonant-vowel phonograms.

12. "Phonetic Methods in Theory and Practice," Chapter IV, GATES's *New Methods in Primary Reading.*

13. R. E. ATKINS's "An Analysis of the Phonetic Elements in a Basal Reading Vocabulary."

14. *Teaching Beginners to Read in England*, W. H. WINCH.

15. A review of W. W. THEISEN's "Does Intelligence Tell in First Grade Reading?"

16. *Reading Activities in the Kindergarten-Primary Grades*, GRACE E. STORM and NILA B. SMITH.

D. THEME ASSIGNMENTS

1. "In order for a child to become a good oral reader, he should acquire certain habits." Expand this statement.

2. A student-teacher reports as follows:

> I had the opportunity of teaching a first-year class one week. This class had been newly organized. Some of the

children had had instruction before, while others had had none. This produced the necessity of beginning as if there had been no previous teaching.

Indicate a brief procedure with whatever comment you believe would be helpful to this young teacher.

3. "In all grades from 1A through 8B work-type and recreatory reading must be taught." Indicate briefly where a young teacher might find lists of each type for her first-year class.

4. "Oral reading is absolutely essential in the first two grades." Explain your viewpoint.

CHAPTER IX

THE RAPID PROGRESS STAGE OF BEGINNING READING: THE SECOND YEAR

The main points of this chapter.—There is always a danger that inexperienced teachers may assume too great a reading ability on the part of pupils in the second and third years. It may be true that the children exhibit much skill in both oral and silent reading at the close of the first school year. Nevertheless, there is the greatest need that habits already formed shall be strengthened through adequate practice opportunity.

This chapter deals with the goals of achievement for the second year of reading and with specific suggestions for the teacher who desires to attain them. It contains also sample lessons suggesting plans of procedure.

Since many newly appointed teachers are assigned to classes of the second and third years, such teachers and those intending or expecting to teach on these grade levels should study the matter of this chapter with especial care.

The pupil's progress in the second and third grades.—These two grades constitute the stage in beginning reading when rapid progress may be expected. A marked development in power and interest should be observable on the pupil's part. Not only should he make even more certain his already acquired reading habits and skills but he should show a steady growth in his desire to read.

Indeed, at the conclusion of this third stage of his first reading period the normal child should be well along the road to independent reading and should be more and more willing to travel it silently, with greater intelligence and speed, and orally, with smoother fluency and readier accuracy of expression. In a word, he should have entered the ranks of the literate.

To the above defined ends the teacher of the second grade should prepare lessons affording ample opportunity for pupils (a) to follow directions with precision, after the manner of the first grade but with better success; (b) to select the most important point in a paragraph or in a longer, yet simple, story; (c) to solve problems through reading; (d) to find out enough about the chief characters in a story to take part in a simple discussion afterwards; (e) to read so attentively as to be able to reproduce a story in whole or in part; (f) to find quotations, facts, or answers to questions; and (g) to read silently for enjoyment.

It is well to remember that reading should not be reduced to a mere matter of practice drill. A pupil may attain a dead level of practice where skill becomes the be-all and end-all of his striving. In such circumstances the spell evoked by sheer endeavor should be relieved by oral reading as much for the pleasure of self-expression it affords as for the enjoyment it offers to others.

The paramount importance of the teacher's preparation.—A young teacher can make no greater mistake than to observe the work of an experienced teacher and say to herself, "That's easy. I don't see why it should take so much plan-writing to get such results. All you need is enthusiasm and discipline." It is true that as we grow in experience definite preparation in so far as minor details are concerned may become less and less necessary. How-

ever, "relief" comes only through study and experience. It is a fact, too, that the best and most experienced teachers usually make great preparation for their daily work. Of course, it differs somewhat from the preparation they probably made when beginning, and quite naturally so.

On the whole, the young teacher will do wisely not to rely on enthusiasm alone or on native wit or proffered tricks of discipline, but rather to devote much time and thought to her general cultural and professional upbuilding and to specific lesson preparation. The good results achieved by teachers who taught the lessons cited in this chapter, and in other chapters, were attributable not only to ability and experience but also to their willingness to think their problems through.

The teacher's part in the lesson.—The day is past when the traditional recitation or drill type of period would suffice with up-to-date supervisors. The reading lesson no longer consists of several quickly given orders—"Sit up tall!"—"Take out readers!"—"Open to page so-and-so!" —"Now let us see how erect each pupil can stand at his seat and read in a good clear voice!"—"Remember, the book must be twelve inches away from your eyes, and your feet at a forty-five-degree angle. Now, let us begin!"

Today, in a modern classroom, a very different attitude should and will be found. The child is self-active, the teacher is guiding. There is comradery without familiarity in the class relationship. There is adjustment to needs. Aims and procedure tend to emphasize the fact that reading is not the single ability of, say, pronouncing words, but a great complex of abilities. The method of attack is not general but specific. The method-whole is made up of closely integrated parts with comprehension

of content as its goal, interest as its motivating force, and pleasurable feeling as the accompaniment of effort.

Needless to say, there is a large place for reflective thinking on the teacher's part if her work is to achieve satisfying results. In the second grade there are still many reading difficulties or barriers to smooth away. If there is an unusual word, as there will be in many selections, the teacher may show her art and skill by including it in her preliminary motivating remarks or perhaps by writing it beforehand on the blackboard, or, it may be, by incorporating it in a well-planned practice exercise. Should there be too many such words she will probably select another piece or let the more rapid group of pupils read on while the less rapid read something else.

Throughout the reading lesson occasional, incidental help may be given when and where it is needed, but given unobtrusively. When the reading is oral, such assistance should be offered if possible after the thought-unit has been read, in order not only that enjoyment may not be lessened but also that the trend of thought may not be interrupted. Even in higher grades mispronunciation, substitution of one word for another, repetition, or all three types of error in greater or less degree, may be expected in pupils' reading.

During the conversation periods, the picture-study periods, and the periods when other subjects are in hand, the teacher should try to arrange matters so that the words found difficult in the reading lesson shall be repeatedly used. Class word lists and individual pupils' word lists should be kept week by week. The words in these lists should form the basis of at least some of the drill lessons. Helpful in the development of vocabulary will be a study of simple synonyms and phrases, with well

prepared lessons centering possibly in pictorial dictionary study such as will later be explained.[1] Properly printed flash cards providing drill on words and phrases taken from the class reading will also be of assistance to the same end. In these and other ways the span of recognition will be gradually widened. It will probably be necessary to arrange for separate treatment in the case of certain backward pupils. In every school day there are odd times when children may be taken aside for special individual instruction.

Reading to pupils as a means of motivation.—The teacher's voice may be a great asset in teaching children to read. It should be one of the second-grade teacher's regular duties to read to her pupils. But an entire period need not be devoted to this one pursuit. The teacher may, for instance, start the reading period herself and let the pupils end the selection themselves, orally or silently, or she may intersperse the children's efforts with her own. One day, for instance, she tells the story of a little boy or girl. After she has conversed with the pupils about the plot, though without revealing the conclusion of the whole matter, she directs that books be taken out, the table of contents scanned, and the story read in silence with a definite purpose in mind.

Again, the teacher may read a poem to her class. Immediately following will come the pupils' silent reading of a prose selection on the same general theme. Afterwards, teacher and pupils will discuss the similarity of one selection to the other. Silent and oral reading are thus naturally supplementary. Expressive oral reading may conclude the lesson. In this connection it should be observed

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[1]See pages 188–190.

that a skillful, sympathetic reading by the teacher, or by a gifted pupil, will probably leave a more vivid impression of a poem or beautiful prose passage than a bungling of it by a hit-and-miss calling of pupils to stand and read. It should further be observed that any discussion so detailed as to lead to a dissection of reading matter must find no place in reading lessons of this or any other of the primary or even middle grades. A feeling of pleasure has much more to do with appreciation than has the exercise of intellectual acumen.

Motivation through dramatization.—Another important way to motivate a reading lesson is through dramatization. Self-expression is basic here. The spirit of make-believe is translated into experience. The wise teacher avails herself of these elements in child nature.

Dramatization provides a meeting ground for oral and silent reading. In the first year the child has received directions and commands which he has acted out. He has also taken part in simple performances based upon matter read in his first reader. The time is now ripe for wider opportunity for the dramatic instinct. Almost any narrative of action, where human beings or animals, real or imaginative, live and move, will offer occasion for this form of organized play. Let us consider an illustration.

The pupils are asked to look through the table of contents to find the title of a story not yet read. They are further requested to read the story silently to find out not only "what it is all about" but also, more specifically, who the characters are and what each of them does. Discussion follows, during which the names of the characters are written on the board. General oral reading is now in order for the purpose of "trying out the parts." The pupil actors are then selected. The class may be

divided at this point, one group—the actors—to study their lines and memorize them, the other—the majority of the pupils—to do a piece of related seatwork, such as drawing an appropriate scene or stage-setting for the drama that will shortly follow. The opportunity that this grouping presents for individual work with pupils should be evident. At another time, the teacher will be careful to select her actors from the seatwork group and provide special, purposeful, worth-while activity for the others who are not participating.

Several Typical Second-Grade Lessons

The following lessons will exemplify (a) silent-oral reading; (b) supervised study reading correlated with nature study; (c) silent reading of factual matter; (d) silent reading to carry out instructions; (e) silent reading appreciation lesson; (f) dramatization; (g) library period; (h) group of related selections; and (i) practice lessons—(1) play, and (2) seatwork. They are followed by suggestions for informal dictionary study.

The note must again be stressed that in any lesson plan or lesson report it is a single lesson that is necessarily presented, and a single teaching situation met. The teacher will, of course, vary the procedure to meet the needs of her own pupils under different conditions and changing circumstances. In this, indeed, the progressive, earnest, resourceful teacher will find the everpresent fascination of professional classroom work. Here, in the reading lesson, if she has grasped the underlying principles, and acquired the proper technique, will the teacher show herself the artist. Nothing is finer, it may be said in passing, than a well-conducted reading lesson; nothing much worse than a poor one.

In each of the following lessons the student should especially note: (a) the worth-while nature of the activities in which the pupils are asked to participate; (b) the part played by the teacher and that by the pupils; (c) the variety of classroom activities during the reading period; (d) the provision for rapid growth and strengthening of what has already been achieved: and (e) the relative emphasis upon silent and oral reading.

A student-teacher's report of an observed silent-oral reading lesson.—The duration of the lesson was 30 minutes. The class was above average intelligence. The selection was "The Fox and The Crab" from the *Bolenius Reader*.

PART I: SILENT READING

TEACHER: Open your readers to page 128 and find out what the story is about today.

PUPIL: The story is about "The Fox and the Crab."

TEACHER: What does a fox look like?

PUPIL: Like a dog, only he's not so nice.

TEACHER: Why isn't he nice?

PUPIL: He goes behind your back and does nasty things.

TEACHER: What does a crab look like?

PUPIL: He lives in the water, has a turtle-back and lots of legs.

TEACHER: Has any one ever eaten crab meat?

PUPIL: I have, it tastes good.

PUPIL: My father caught some. One pinched him, but he brang them home anyway.

TEACHER: Say, "My father *brought* them home."

[*To class.*] Look at the pictures. Study the first three lines [a thought-whole].

The following questions have been written on the blackboard:

1. Whom did the fox meet one day?
2. What did he say? [*Answer read from reader.*]
3. How much faster could the fox run?

These questions are correctly answered orally.

TEACHER: [*To class.*] Study next four lines [a thought-whole] very, very hard. [*Some are beginning to read aloud.*] Don't make a sound while you're reading—that's not smart. [*A good point since teacher has been discouraging lip-reading.*]

The teacher points to the following questions on the blackboard:

1. Did the crab answer the fox?
2. Why could he run fast?
3. What kind of tail did he have?
4. What did he want to do with his tail?

TEACHER: Finish reading the page [a third thought-whole]. What did the fox do to his tail?

PUPIL: Tied it.

TEACHER: No, he didn't. Read it carefully!

PUPIL: Dropped it.

TEACHER: What did the crab do? I wonder who has the brightest eyes.

[*One child reads the answer but does not pronounce claws correctly. Teacher writes* "cl" *and has the child pronounce it, then alongside* "cl" *she writes* "aw". *When the child puts the two sounds together correctly, the class pronounces the word.*]

TEACHER: What did the crab say? [*A child reads answer from the reader.*]

TEACHER: Who had the better brain? [*Brief discussion follows.*]

PART II: ORAL READING

The page is then read orally. Children are urged to hold book correctly. When errors are made, children read silently, then read aloud to correct error.

PART III: DRAMATIZATION

The story is then dramatized. The teacher is looking for those smart enough to pick out what to say.

Instead of using page 129 to aid the dramatizing, a girl reads the part, "Say", and a boy, the part, "Do".

PART IV: REPRODUCTION

Two children then attempt to reproduce the story, but neither can finish, though both make a fine beginning.

A third child (the brightest in the class) reproduces the story almost word for word.

A well-planned lesson will always reveal a unified whole, leaving no doubt in the observer's mind as to the nature of the lesson, its aim, and the directness with which the teacher is leading her pupils toward the realization of a definite objective. Restudy the lesson, the report of which you have just read, from the standpoint of this note.

A student-teacher's report upon a supervised study reading lesson correlated with nature study.—Supervised study stresses the present-day thought of study under the teacher's guidance. The work is not done for the child, nor is the child left entirely to his own resources. In many modern schools, supervised study takes the place of the older recitation lesson where the child recited to the teacher what he had learned at home and restudied by himself what he failed to give satisfactorily in class. Supervised study does away with the necessity of very much, if not all, "home work"

The student should consider the teacher's introduction. A few apt words at the beginning often motivate a lesson very well. The ways in which the teacher made this a thought-provoking lesson should receive attention. Note the purposeful element in each activity required of the pupils.

I gave a lesson on the chickadee. I had told the children a story entitled, "How God Made the World", and since it referred, in part, to birds, I began my lesson with a brief summary of that story. One little girl, in reproducing the story, said, "The birds help make people happy." With that thought in mind, I introduced the chickadee as a friendly little bird who comes to make our cold, dreary winter more cheerful. I then

asked the children to turn to their books and find the story of the chickadee by consulting the table of contents. My next direction was simply to read the selection silently and be able to describe the bird and talk about it with me.

I had two pictures of the chickadee which I kept before the pupils to present a picture of the bird itself. So that the children's observation would not be too detailed and unrelated I used questions to concentrate thought upon one topic at a time. First, we considered size. This involved comparison with familiar birds like the robin, as well as measurement of the size with the children's hands. From size we passed on to color, the children noting the colors and markings which would aid in identifying this little bird. Of course, most of the nest-building and feeding habits had to be mentioned by the teacher. In mentioning these facts, I made them more interesting by relating them to the pupils' reading and experience. For instance, in discussing the chickadee's food, we spoke of bread crumbs. Many interesting little stories were told by the children in this connection. Some had thrown crumbs on the window sill, others in the yard, and others on the roof. The children reasoned out some simple little problems. They thought out why the chickadee uses a hole in the tree for his nest and not a nest such as the robin uses. They also thought out why the chickadee can hang upside down on a tree. From time to time we referred to the book for confirmation of some remark or other. Oral reading with a real audience situation naturally resulted.

In order to summarize, one little child was chosen to play she was the chickadee. She was allowed to hold the picture. The other children asked her questions about herself. It was surprising to note what good questions the children asked. They were questions which showed thought on the part of the questioners, and required thought on the part of the answerers. At recess time we played the game, "Five Little Chickadees" The children tried to imitate the actions of the chickadee. The game also acted as an aid in keeping the subject fresh in the pupils' minds.

It will have been seen that worth-while self-activity on the part of the pupils was evident not only in the well

integrated game at the end but also throughout the lesson. What seatwork might have been arranged in connection with this supervised study reading lesson?

A plan for a silent reading lesson with factual matter.—The student should observe the motivation of the following lesson, the socialization of the period, and the exemplification of the doctrine of individual differences.

Preliminary remark.—"Children, you will find here how to play a game. After you have read it I shall show you a number of questions. All who can answer most of these questions correctly will be permitted to play. The two boys or girls who give the best answers will be the captains of the two sides."

Procedure.—The teacher gives out books or papers with the typewritten story. The blackboard may serve the same purpose. A reading time-limit is set. Ten questions covering the main points in the game are then shown on the blackboard or on pieces of paper quickly passed to the pupils. A time limit is set for this check-up. After the record has been made the two highest scorers are appointed captains of the two teams. The highest score pupil has the choice of the first classmate who will be on his side; the next highest score pupil has the second choice. Alternate choosing follows until the pupils who have answered most of the questions correctly have been selected for one team or the other. The teacher should, of course, know the reading ability of her pupils and have her material and her questions arranged accordingly. It is not wise to have too few to play the game. All who do not "make" the teams should be given an inactive part such as keeping the score and noting especially good work by individual players and by each team as a whole.

A student-teacher's report upon a silent reading lesson on carrying out instructions.—The student will observe the part played by the teacher in this lesson, the general evidence of careful preparation, the worth-while character of the work, and its motivation accordingly.

First of all, the teacher had a clear and definite aim. The aim was, "to see if children could comprehend and carry out instructions." This aim was very good inasmuch as it was not a mere factual quest but a real thought-goal. In addition to this acceptable aim, the teacher had at hand some well-selected illustrative material. Each picture illustrated a different phase of the story, "The Three Piggie Wigs," so that together and in series the pictures presented the outline of the whole matter, served to motivate the lesson, and became the center of the introductory approach at the beginning as well. This approach, by the way, was short, just enough to whet the interest of the children.

On the whole, the lesson showed careful preparation on the teacher's part. In the first place, the subject matter was well selected, as the unforced attention of the pupils clearly showed. In the second place, all instructions were written plainly on the blackboard. When the children had read these, the questions on the story were written on another part of the board. If the wrong number was given to a question, the teacher would write, "Who has a different number?" and the like. She used her voice as little as possible.

The last sentence is significant. Why?

A plan for a dramatization lesson.—Dramatization should be prominent in the second grade. The lesson plan given below is an adaptation of a single plan prepared by a young teacher in the practice division of a city training school. She had had but five weeks of observation work in the lower grades. The results of her lesson were good.

Name of student: —— ——
School: Practice
Date: December 20

Class taught: 2 B–2
Type: Review
Pupil intelligence: Average normal

Subject: Oral and silent reading for dramatization

Aim.—To read and re-read the story, "The Golden Touch", silently and orally, stressing meaning and expression through

reading and the spoken word; eventually, to dramatize the story.

Illustrative material.—A picture of King Midas

Preliminary remark.—"How would you like to act out this story of a king who wished that everything he touched might be turned to gold? Of course, in order to do this, we must know the story very, very well because when we speak the lines we ought first to know just what they mean. Then, too, we should be sure of how we are going to say the words, always thinking of how they will sound to the people who listen to us. Nobody should have to guess what we are trying to say."

Presentation.—(a) Review the text of the story already read silently. Questions should motivate oral reading for meaning of special parts of probable difficulty. (b) Summarize the story on blackboard with a word or two for each part. For example:

ACT I: *The Wish*

Scene 1.—How King Midas received the Golden Touch
Scene 2.—The King's wish that everything he touched be turned to gold
Scene 3.—The King's wish granted by a Stranger

ACT II: *The Golden Touch*

Scene 1.—Everything gold at a touch
Scene 2.—The King's daughter, too!

ACT III: *The Release*

Scene 1.—A terror-stricken king
Scene 2.—The Stranger "a friend in need"

Conclusion.—Begin preparation for dramatization to be enacted during the next period.

Related activities.—Seatwork in the form of drawing the stage-setting and a picture booklet of characters. Practice in expression, especially clear and correct pronunciation and enunciation.

The student should ask herself to what extent this young student-teacher included the essentials of a good lesson.

A plan for a library period reading lesson.—The student's consideration is directed to the question: To what extent did the procedure tend to fulfill the aim?

Aim.—To encourage the child to read and to converse about the stories that he reads in supplementary or additional books.

Procedure.—Allow each child to select from the library table the book in which he wants to read a story. See that the children have enough books to go round. When the class is ready, have the pupils read silently for, say, fifteen minutes. Meanwhile, go about the room and, by asking questions in a low tone, see to it that each child is really reading. If time permits, prepare these questions on slips of paper and lay one on each desk as you pass about. Quietly help the pupils with difficult words and their meanings when asked. When the pupils have finished have the books closed. One child after another will come to the front of the room. Each must give the title of his story. Either the pupils or you yourself will then ask questions, the answers to be expected from the readers. All stories must be told in the child's own words and as briefly and as clearly as possible. Dramatize the one story which by vote of the class has proved most interesting.

Seatwork and practice drills may be provided for this lesson. See below.

Reading a group of related selections.—Several selections related in thought but differing in type may be taught in sequence as a progressive reading lesson. Oral work, dramatization, language development, and class discussion may all be utilized. Poetry and prose with the common theme, "dog," for example, may provide material for a number of reading periods. This kind of work encourages sustained thought and interest but avoids being monotonous. Natural and effective practice is made possible through the normal repetition of the same words though in varying settings.

Practice lessons.—Practice lessons may take several forms, as we know. We shall first give a lesson sketch for ready word recognition, and then a lesson in phonics. Following these will come typical games and seatwork plans.

1. A Lesson for Ready Word Recognition[1]

(This lesson was taught to a class in the first half of the second year. The average I.Q. was 109.67)[2].

After a short discussion of a picture and its title, individual pupils read aloud. As a word is re-read it is put on the board in the shape of a leaf. When the story has been gone through once, these words are drilled, the children calling the words by the names of the leaves. A game is then played: The winds (pupils) blow the leaves away, calling them by name as they blow; that is, they erase them one by one. One wind chooses another until all the leaves have been removed. At the end of the game the story is re-read with special attention to the words drilled.

2. A Lesson in Phonics[3]

The teacher decided to make the phonic work proceed from a story. She began to teach the sound *h* with the little tale: "Once there were a little dog and a little cat. They quarreled and the dog chased the cat up a tree. The dog was so tired from running that he remained at the foot of the tree and panted." The teacher panted a few times and then asked the pupils to do the same. Then she placed the letter *h* on the board and told the pupils it was the sound they had just heard. Incidentally, they learned the meaning of the word *quarrel*, and the fact that dogs cannot climb trees. In the quarrel scene of the dramatization that followed the children brought in the "meow" and the "bow-wow" The children enjoyed the

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[1]Prepared and given by student-teachers.

[2]For significance of I. Q. see pages 105–106

[3]Cf. Dougherty's *How to Teach Phonics*.

lesson and later carried over the sound not only in their reading but in their penmanship as well.

3. Typical Games

Playing postman.—Prepare card on which names of various objects in and about the room are printed, such as chair, desk, window, etc. Give each pupil one card, which he is to "deliver" to the right "home", that is, the object named on his card.

Open-the-door game.—Tell the pupils that all doors are easy to open, but keys are necessary. Give each child pictures of several doors. Where the keyhole should be are words taken from a story just read or about to be read. The child selects a sentence, correctly using the word he has received. If the sentence "hits" the word, he has opened the door.

Bo-Peep game.—Let the pupils play that they are sheep. They stand in a circle, each holding a flash or perception card in front of him. Bo Peep stands in the center and tries to find her sheep by reading the cards that the others are holding. As she finds each sheep, she conducts it to the sheepfold in one corner of the room. The game is continued until all the sheep have been found. In case Bo Peep misses, she becomes a lost sheep, and her place is taken by the sheep whose card she failed to read.

4. Seatwork[1] Plans

Reading.—Additional recreatory reading may be arranged by supplying the classroom bookshelf with books, papers or clippings. The teacher, with the pupils' assistance, may develop an "envelope library", that is, a set of envelopes containing clippings from children's magazines or worn-out readers of the second, or higher or lower grade to suit the reading ability range of the class. These clippings should be illustrated and varied in subject for interest appeal.

Doing.—Other seatwork exercises may be easily prepared. These may be (1) for coloring or drawing pictures, following

[1]Additional discussion of seatwork will be found in the next chapter. Much of the work there suggested may be adapted to second-grade use.

written or printed directions, or (2) for cutting out various parts of, say, a dress or a suit, each bearing its name underneath, and the pasting of the parts in proper position on a card. In the first of these, there is an opportunity to train the pupils' constructive imagination if the teacher offers a choice among several groups of words and suggests either the free drawing of a picture to include them or the completion of a partly finished picture. For example, the group—door, window, step, and roof—may be taken to represent a house which, if the child elects to draw it, he will reconstruct in appropriate fashion. On the other hand, if the picture of a house is presented, it may call for completion by the drawing of any one of the parts just named. In the case of cutting out, coloring may be added if the original parts were drawn in outline only.

Informal dictionary study.[1]—Some teachers find it possible to begin the study of the dictionary in a very simple, practical way even earlier than the second year.[2]

A pictorial dictionary of brief scope and large print is provided. This dictionary is equipped with an alphabet index, and the reading vocabulary is illustrated by pictures or distinguished by words in black-face type, in phrases or by simple sentences. Replete with pictures illustrative of various common, concrete objects, the pictorial dictionary also contains material for answering questions, words in script as well as in ordinary print, with both small and capital letters closely associated.

In a lesson of this kind a story illustrated by a picture on a large pad is told to the class as a whole. The class reproduces this story and dramatizes it. In some instances a sentence in the form of a label containing new

[1]For a full explanation of such study consult the *Teacher's Manual* of *Picture-Story Reading Lessons*, by SMITH and COURTIS.

[2]At least in the second or third year dictionary study may be begun with profitable results. It is time, at this stage, that children be introduced to the practical need of learning the alphabet.

vocabulary words, too difficult to express in pictures, is studied with the story.

Dictionaries are now passed to the pupils. The children draw their thumbs down the edge of the index, which is cut into the outer edge of the pages, until they find the initial letter of the word. Then, they open the dictionary to the first page of words beginning with the same letter. By matching the whole word on each page the pupils find the word they are seeking. The picture or sentence then helps them to identify the meaning of the word. The "advance dictionary" may have the first two letters of the words printed at the top of the page and thus afford an added device for increasing ease and speed in finding words.

Two groups of pupils are now formed: one, an independent group of the more capable children, who will probably progress at their own rate from step to step of their picture building; and another, a dependent group of the less capable or slow children, who will study one picture at a time under the guidance of the teacher. These slower children solve the problem of "building the picture", that is, of filling in appropriate colors, by reading and carrying out directions one at a time. For example, one lesson on the large pad to which reference has already been made, includes a boy, a rabbit, a wolf, a bee, and several goats, all of which are to be variously colored.[1] At every point, of course, encouragement is given.

As will have been noted, the pictorial dictionary gives opportunity (a) to the pupils, for self-help in finding new words, for individual work according to the pupils' needs, for the natural stimulation of ready and increasingly rapid

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[1]See Courtis-Smith *Picture-Story Reading Lessons—Practice Pad.*

recognition of words, and for the growth in the child's span of recognition; and (b) to the teacher, for determining and checking individual weaknesses with a view to correcting them.

Review.—In the second and third grades the normal child, normally trained in the first year, should show continuing progress in all of the reading abilities that his earlier teachers sought to develop. Through carefully prepared lessons for specific ends the teachers of the second and third grades lead their pupils to read with greater comprehension and more rapid speed. Reading becomes increasingly a thinking process, a means as well to study as to recreation.

STUDY PROBLEMS

A. Discussion Topics

1. To what extent are the following reported procedure and criticism of a second-year oral reading lesson in keeping with the thought of the chapter you have just studied?

> The teacher told the children to open books to page 48. Her order was that the children listen and follow along the page as she read. After she had read the story the children were called upon to read two or three lines at a time. Occasionally, she called attention to the pronunciation of certain words. When the last line was read the books were closed and put away. This lesson was poorly presented and ineffectively taught. The teacher's first step, that of telling, or reading, the story as a means of appeal to interest and attention, is an approved method of beginning a reading lesson. Had she followed this by having the children dramatize the story, then study selected thought-groups and sentences from the blackboard, followed by reading from the books, her lesson would have been very effective. During the period of actual reading from books attention should have been called to clear enunciation and pronun-

ciation, and interpretation of thought, and inflection of voice.

2. What were the apparent merits of the second-year reading lesson of which the following is a criticism?

The aim seemed very definite and to the point. However, it could be improved by having a trend of appreciation in it. Children should be taught to look upon reading as a great pleasure. The illustrative material, though not so varied, seemed to be sufficient to bring out the aim and desired results of the lesson. The procedure was very well drawn out. The carefully organized introduction of new words with the appropriate review of previous work seemed to pave the way for fluent reading from the text. The games animated the lesson with a zest some of the children carried into the actual reading. During the reading, questions were asked which presupposed considerable thinking on the part of the children and which motivated the following paragraphs.

The reactions of the individuals were very varied. Several children showed ability to grasp the material immediately. Others were sufficiently prepared by the drill. But about one-third of the children did not seem capable of grasping the work. However, I believe this was due to the differences in the intelligence of the children. The I. Q.'s ran from 65 to 132. There was no grouping within the class to teach different material to the different grades of intelligence.

3. What merit do you find in each of the following statements from test papers?

a. Present-day reading should differ from that of former times in putting more time and energy on silent reading than on oral. For, after all, it is not whether the child can get up and read a paper or book just to hear himself read, but whether he knows what the printed symbols mean.

b. There is no need for oral reading although there is sufficient need for silent reading. Because of this rational view, we find silent reading growing in importance in

modern times. Even oral reading itself has undergone changes.

c. Expressionless reading is only word-calling.

B. Group Research Topics

1. Phonics—value, time, and place—according to any three or four present-day reading systems.

2. Drill exercises collated from several reading manuals.

3. Dramatization of several second-year reading selections.

C. Individual Research Topics

1. The following assertions were made by student-teachers in the course of their study of reading methodology. Their statements should be compared with those in several current texts on reading method.

a. One authority states that the amount of oral reading in the lower grades should be greater than the amount of silent reading in those grades and that the upper years should encourage a greater amount of silent reading than of oral.

b. Reading should be taught in the first three years because reading is a social process. I have found authorities in disagreement on this point.

2. The following statements were made by young teachers. Check the statement by reference to the text and any other authority you may have available:

a. I was in a class where a teacher insisted upon interrupting the child's oral renditions and correcting them. Then, when she asked the youngster what he had read, he could not formulate any answer that expressed the thought. The youngster was of average ability.

b. In one of the schools to which I was assigned, I observed a number of reading lessons. It was in a foreign district, and although the children were able to read with a fair degree of accuracy and speed, they did not always grasp the thought. The teacher would put several questions on the board, and tell the children just how long she would give them to answer the first question. The selection was first read silently, then the child answered the

question, reading orally the part that really pertained to the question. If the question was answered incorrectly she would have the entire class re-read the selection. She would then ask another child the question, and he would answer it, reading the part of the selection pertaining to the question, orally. In this way the children's reading lesson was a combination of oral and silent reading. The fact that they had to read part of the selection correctly, orally, encouraged them to read the selection silently and thoughtfully.

D. Theme Assignments

1. One authority reminds us that since we read poetry for pure enjoyment, and since we derive enjoyment mainly from rhythm and sound, it is through the ear that poetry should be appreciated. Oral reading follows, for the purpose is to enjoy it with a group. (See Marjorie Hardy's *Second and Third Grade Manual* for *The Child's Own Way Series*, page 104.) Confirm or refute this opinion after you have consulted several authorities.

2. "The elaboration of the first reading period is due to the fact that much of the reading activity of the child is to be carried over into at least the next two reading periods. Such activities run parallel and supplementary to the book reading lessons." Elaborate the term, "reading activities."

3. After observing several lessons, write your own views upon how such a lesson as this might have been improved.

In preparation for the class reading period in the second year, the story was read silently. The recitation was given over to testing how well the pupils read, and to the reading aloud of selected parts of the story, "Mother Spider" (*Elson, Book III*). In preparing the lesson the children were directed to read the story silently as rapidly as possible, but not so fast as to fail to get the thought. Questions were written on the blackboard. The pupils were to test themselves by seeing how many of the questions they could answer after reading the story once, and by telling the main thought of the story. The pupils were able to answer all the questions. The teacher might have added a great deal

to her lesson by a suitable introduction to the story at the beginning.

4. Consider this statement with care and write out your own thought of the practical advantages and disadvantages of such a procedure.

One teacher had the class pick out their own phonic difficulties. At the beginning of the reading lesson the children would open their books to the story and pick out unknown and difficult words which were then written on the blackboard. About ten minutes were spent in drilling. Pronunciations and meanings were drilled. I later observed that this was effective because fewer errors were made by the children.

5. "Everything within range of child interest should be used to motivate the reading." Explain this in some detail after a perusal of WILSONS' *The Motivation of School Work.*

6. "Poetry is rather difficult for young children to read." Give your own viewpoint with citation of cases within your observation or recollection.

CHAPTER X

THE RAPID PROGRESS STAGE OF BEGINNING READING: THE THIRD YEAR

The main points of this chapter.—The work of the third year is, of course, largely a continuation of that of the preceding year. Reading opportunity is ever widening from month to month. Following are the special topics to be considered in this chapter:

1. Reading achievements of the third year.
2. Oral reading.
3. Typical third-grade lessons.
4. Reading projects.
5. Practice drill.
6. Tests and testing.

With the close of the third year the normal child, who has been properly taught and whose work has not been interrupted by long or frequent illness, withdrawal from classes, or other retarding causes, will have mastered the tools of reading and so used them that they have become an effective means to the unlocking of printed thought. He will be ready to enter upon the period of wider reading in the fourth and subsequent middle years.

Reading achievements of the third year.—As the natural development of the reading achievements of the second year those of the third year should mark the close of the beginning period. Briefly stated, these achievements may be assumed to be (a) an established habit of inde-

pendent reading, (b) effective use of reading ability in the interpretation of suitable material relating to school activities, (c) interest in seeking out material of assistance in solving problems, (d) ability to read silently more rapidly than orally, and (e) ability to read orally easily and expressively.[1]

The student will consider all such estimates of "desirable levels" of achievement as approximate, for as in everything else pupils and classes will naturally continue to vary greatly in reading attainment. Normal conditions do not always exist. Home environment, native intelligence, school administration and discipline, pupil-classification, previous teachers, the system of reading in use, available books, and many another reason, some or all will have entered into the reading life-story of the pupils in most schools. And yet none of these factors should dampen the enthusiasm of the teacher. Despite any and all handicaps, much real progress toward desirable goals will have been made. Patience, love of children, reasonable preparation, adaptation of means to ends, common sense, reflection upon one's own reading development as a child, a sense of humor, and, above all, the "long view", will together accomplish more than the teacher sometimes realizes.

Oral Reading

Values, objectives, and methods.—It is of especial importance to keep in mind certain values and objectives in the teaching of oral reading. To begin with, oral reading is not to be thought of as an accidental matter, silent reading usurping its place. Hardly anywhere else than

[1]Slightly adapted summarization of "Desirable levels of achievement," *Twenty-Fourth Yearbook*, page 54.

in oral reading may a teacher, of at least the first years, feel so confident that she is properly directing the learning process. Pupils must be trained to original thinking, it is quite true, but then, too, they must be trained to live in a practical world wherein mankind has effected certain modes of thinking, which because of their general acceptance are most valuable in the economy of daily life. Oral reading of another's words affords a golden opportunity for wise and stimulating direction and guidance of children's thought processes in the proper channels of expression. Reading, as we know, is a process so amazingly complex, involving muscular, neural, and kinesthetic, as well as numerous psychological factors, that no teacher can be too sure that her pupils are forming correct and economical mental habits without the aid of frequent, varied, and skillfully conducted oral work.

In a good oral reading period there is also a decided social value which it would be a pity to forego, in the early grades at any rate. The friendly give-and-take of simple discussion and informal conversation based upon expressive reading should prove an asset in many a classroom situation. There will be beautiful images to see, lovely sounds to recall, passages to retain as a possession of memory through life. If nothing more, there may be the memory of a sweet voice,[1] either the teacher's or a gifted pupil's. Quite as much as his mind, a child's spirit and emotions need cultivation. Careful selection of reading material is thus an evident responsibility for all teachers.

Audience situations.—As far as practicable, the teacher of oral reading should try to provide real audience situations. It is not enough to ask one child after another

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[1]The student will do well to read CORSON's *Voice and Spiritual Education.*

to stand and read, imagining that the pupils in their seats are a true audience. They may be only involuntary listeners tolerating the hour. A genuine motive must be provided—a worth-while motive, one recognized as such by the children. The production of a class-program for school assembly participation, the encouragement to listen for certain definite things, perhaps with the pupils' eyes closed so that they may concentrate upon a visual image of what is being read, the opportunity for dramatization, the desire to prove a point or to solve a simple daily problem—these are a few of the many possible ways and means of motivation at the teacher's command. Her own resourcefulness will add others.

Illustrative material.—If apt and timely illustration is omitted many a passage may remain obscure or distorted, leaving a possibly unworthy or inadequate image in the child's mind. It is true that the teacher may overdo the use of illustrations and thus dwarf the immature imagination, but it is also true, especially in the earliest years, that it is her duty to provide sensible objective or pictorial matter definitely helpful to the proper interpretation of the printed page.

Further, and even more fundamentally, it is of primary importance that, with young children at any rate, the actual image of the symbol be presented as concretely as possible. As it has already been explained,[1] the child builds up meaning from a sensational core, and far from the least of the senses used will be the visual.

Expression and continuity.—In the early grades, special attention will have to be paid to the elements of expression—to pronunciation, enunciation, phrasing,

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[1]See pages 60–62.

pitch, rate, and the like. These are important and require specific practice. A knowledge of phonics and phonetics, and other branches of the modern art and science of speech, will repay any teacher for the trouble necessary to its acquisition. Care should be exercised that such work shall not become so formalized as to chill the emotional atmosphere of the classroom, that refinements shall not be carried beyond the limits of practical life, and that attention to detached elements of speech shall not obscure their intimate association with meaningful content.

Still another point should be stressed. Some teachers ruin an otherwise satisfactory oral reading lesson by ill-timed or frequent interruption for comparatively trivial cause. Let the pupil read on until he finishes the sentence or even the longer thought-whole. Be not perturbed if he mispronounce a word here and there. Errors can be noted and taken care of later in a separate practice period. A better assignment of passages to be read will eliminate many mistakes. A teacher's thoughtful study of the reading matter before the lesson will often reveal possible difficulties which may become the subject of special explanation and drill. There is no harm at all in unobtrusively meeting a difficulty on the spot provided that too much is not made of it and that the general current of reading activity is not destroyed. Remember, too, that the child who makes an occasional error may possibly be so advanced in his thought-life that his mind in grasping larger meanings slips over minor ones.

Beginning the lesson.—An oral reading lesson in the third grade may be begun in several ways. A picture may be studied, a story may be read or told to the children, the pupils themselves may be engaged in conversation,

illustrative material either visual or auditory may be brought in. We have in mind, for example, a lesson on Tennyson's "Sweet and Low" There was a phonographic reproduction of the poem. The children listened and sang as they read the words printed on the blackboard. At the close of the period the class had memorized the entire poem with pleasurable efficiency.

Oral reading may also be planned as a preliminary to silent reading or as a conclusion to it. But be it remembered always that the social and directive thinking values of oral reading are its proper motivation. It is for some listener—one's audience—that one normally reads aloud. A child may also read before his teacher for help in acquiring the proper use of the race's thought-molds.

Oral and silent reading, partners in the reading process.—Oral reading and silent reading are not to be separated in the ordinary reading lesson. There is no need of creating an artificial relationship between them; they are mutually complementary aspects of the reading process. Each has its own point of view, its own purpose, and therefore its own methods, and both must be used to some extent in the normal reading lesson with a definite pedagogical objective.

Typical Third-Grade Lessons

The complementary relationship between oral and silent reading is demonstrated in the three lesson reports that follow. These three lessons were planned with three different objectives—to teach a poem for literary appreciation, to teach the comprehension of details, and to develop extensive reading interests, respectively—but each of them employs, quite naturally, both oral reading and silent reading.

Teaching a poem for literary appreciation.—This is a report of a student-teacher's experience in a rather crowded section of a large city. In this lesson consider the interrelation of oral and silent reading, the use of illustrative material, and the grouping of pupils into "rapids" and "slows" It is better to give pupils a vivid impression of the entire poem than to have it read aloud in formal, ineffective fashion by pupils themselves, or to have it discussed and dissected bit by bit. As she reads the following report, the student will do well to keep this in mind and to judge accordingly.[1]

Although it has two sessions, Public School No. — is crowded to its utmost capacity. The children receive about three and one-half hours of instruction while the other hour and a half is spent in playground work and auditorium exercises. Each room has two teachers in it and two classes of the same grade. The group system which is carried out here reminds me of a country school in which there are three or four classes in a room with one teacher for all. The class is divided into A and B groups. As there is seating capacity for only one class, the groups have to take turns standing. One teacher sits at the rear of the room with her A group standing around her, while the B group remain seated. The other teacher sits at the front with her A group around her and the B group sitting at their desks. The groups in their seats always do work of some kind, which is assigned to them. Occasionally, when a teacher takes her class to the museum or some other place, her room can be used for one of the classes in the group room.

During the time I was there, it became my lot to teach the poem, "The Owl and the Pussy Cat", to a 3A class. I had given a nature study lesson on the cat and had followed it by the story, "Dick Whittington and His Cat" I called my A group up to the front of the room and left my B group busy with seatwork.

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[1]See ELSBREE, HALSEY, and ELSBREE'S *The Teacher's Handbook*, page 123.

In order to introduce my lesson I recalled the nature study lesson on the cat, and also the story. I asked the children if they remembered any poem they had learned about a pussy. One child recited the little poem, "I Love Little Pussy" I asked the pupils to name certain habits of the cat; the use of her whiskers; how her tongue feels; what happens to pussy's eyes at night. I told them a story about a cat that could read: —how pussy could pick out with her paw a letter addressed to her. When I had aroused their wonder and surprise, I asked them how she could tell. Some child finally said, "Maybe there was something good to eat in the envelope" The child had solved it, for there was catnip in the envelope.

Although this story belonged to the nature study lesson more than to the poetry lesson, I decided to give it anyway, because I thought it would arouse interest in pussy. At the time of my nature study lesson, I had not been able to get it. I thought I could use it to advantage in my poetry lesson, and it seemed to work, for the children were quite interested although they had already had a lesson on the cat. I wanted to make the poem real to them and make them like it.

A poem is looked upon by the children usually as a "beastly" thing with out-of-the-way words and tiresome inversions. The inversions are frequently used for language lessons which bore the children to death. Poetry should be kept for the beauty that is in it and for the admiration of the pupils. Sometimes, too much explanation is given or required, thus destroying all sense of the beauty in the poem. Everything should not be explained but something left to the imagination. We should allow the poet to raise the child's level, not drag the poet down to the child's level.

I read the poem slowly, trying to get all the inflections and clearness that I wanted the children to get. Then, I had the children open their books to the poem. I proceeded to ask the following questions:

What does a pea-green boat look like? Can you find any color in the room which is pea-green?

Have you ever seen a guitar? Describe one.

What did the owl say to pussy?

Who played the guitar?
What did pussy say?
How many days in a year? Name the months of the year.
How many days did they sail?
Why did they sail so many days before getting married?
Who sold them a ring?
Who married them?
Where did the turkey live?
What did their wedding dinner consist of?
Where did they dance? What kind of light did they have?

I had a book which was pea-green, and also a piece of silk. One I had put in the rear of the room on the window-sill, and the other on my desk. The children looked around until they found them. I had a picture of an owl and three or four pictures of cats. I also had a picture in which the moon was shining on the water. I asked the children to imagine the owl and the pussy cat dancing. I put on the board some phrases, such as *a small guitar*, *the owl looked up*, "*O lovely pussy*," *In a beautiful pea-green boat*, and others. I called on the children to read them, making sure that they placed the emphasis on the right word. I called on my best reader to read the whole poem. I asked the class what the pussy said and what the owl said. I called on several children to read the poem and asked for a volunteer to say the first four lines. I then asked some more questions and also inquired if some child could tell the story of the poem in his own words.

In a very short time, much to my surprise, most of the children could say the poem almost word for word. Some of the children had begun to say it in a sing-song fashion, but I stopped them because I was afraid the other children would imitate. One of the little boys shouted at the top of his voice, and I had to stop him also. This might not have been so bad if we had been by ourselves, but in a group-room we had to help keep it as quiet as possible. This was not easy, for two classes reciting at once always create more or less noise. In order to try to remedy this habit of shouting, I asked the boy to listen to a boy who spoke very low and distinctly. After several trials he spoke naturally and no louder than the rest.

The A group were sent back to their seats, and the whole lesson was repeated with the B group. It always seemed wiser to take the A group first because I could note their responses and reactions to the lesson and know what points needed more emphasis for the B group. We were obliged to teach each lesson twice, and therefore I was always surer of myself at the second trial.

In spite of this group system, and perhaps because of it, I enjoyed my experience in teaching to the fullest extent.

The student should re-read the earlier part of this chapter and be ready to comment upon this young student-teacher's work accordingly.

Teaching the comprehension of details.—This lesson plan was used by a student-teacher with success. Possible reasons for this success should form the basis of discussion.

Aim.—To teach children to read "Blunder and the Wishing Gate" for comprehension of details.

Preliminary remarks.—Have you ever known a person who could never find what he was looking for? We're going to read about such a person this afternoon, and when we finish I'd like you to tell me why he didn't find what he was after.

Presentation.—

1. Write on board:
   Look in the table of contents and find out what page "Blunder and the Wishing Gate" is on. Stand up when you have found the page.
2. Study the picture on page 85.
   Who is the boy?
   Who is the man?
   What is he doing?
   What is in his bag?
   What kind of bush is he lying under?
3. Ask the following questions one at a time, the pupils reading silently to find the answer, standing as soon as they find it, and then reading their answers aloud.

What did Blunder want?
Where was Blunder going for it?
Was this place easy to find?
Was it really a gate?
Did Blunder know where it was? Who did?
What did she tell Blunder to do?
What kind of boy was Blunder?
What did the Fairy Godmother say to him?
What did Blunder say to her?
Whom did Blunder question first?
Did he do it politely?
Was the owl glad to see him? Why?
Whom did Blunder meet next?

4. Permit children to formulate questions and ask them of each other.

Developing extensive reading interest.—This is a student-teacher's report upon the teaching of *Hiawatha*. The study of this report should give particular attention to the ways and means used to carry out the aim.

Aim.—My endeavor was not merely to teach the poem but rather to make Hiawatha live again.

PERIOD I: CREATING INTEREST

The actual reading of the poem was preceded by a study of Indian life, on broad general lines. Much of the material brought to the children was homemade: the miniature wigwam, the cradle with a tiny papoose nestled among its blankets, the wee bow and arrow, and the little canoe. I selected a collection of portraits of Indian braves, squaws, children and encampments, which I obtained at the central branch of the public library.

First, the children became familiar, through the colored prints, with the Indian's physiognomy and general appearance. A closer scrutiny was made of his dress with all its accessories, the feathers, moccasins, and blankets. Attention was called to his love of decoration and bright colors. The bow and arrow were

examined, and I explained their use in warfare and in the hunt.

Interest reached its greatest heights at the appearance of the wigwam. I explained the use of the smoke-hole and the flap that closes the home at night.

The wee brown baby (made of rags) strapped to his straight little cradle-board found its way to the hearts of the children immediately. Although a mite of a few inches long, his cradle was constructed on the same lines as a real one. He was tucked into a red blanket, and to secure his safety, I laced the front of the cradle together. It was all profusely decorated with colored beads and fringe. I told the children that a strap was adjusted at the top, and the baby, happy and unprotesting, was swung from a bough, while his mother, the squaw, busied herself grinding corn or fetching water. From the museum I acquired specimens of basketry, a pair of moccasins, and a miniature birch-bark canoe.

PERIOD II: READING BEGINS

Having proceeded so far, the children had become sufficiently familiar with Indian life to be able to appreciate the references made to it in the poem.

I insured interest in the poem by beginning at the outset with "Hiawatha's Childhood", rather than the "Peace Pipe" or "The Four Winds", which doubtless would be uninteresting to 3A children.

I had a large tray filled with sand, and in it erected bits of evergreen for the black and gloomy forest. On the clearing between the forest and the water's edge, I stood my miniature wigwam of Nokomis. A little farther over, I put a piece of looking-glass on the sand and placed my canoe on it, for I told the children that canoes may sometimes be seen gliding across the Big-Sea Water.

Then, too, I had a picture of Nokomis rocking Hiawatha in the cradle. It represented the scene in the following lines:

> "There the wrinkled old Nokomis
> Nursed the little Hiawatha
> Rocked him in his linden-cradle."

Before, we had studied papooses in general; now, we were going to make a study of a particular one, "Hiawatha." We examined the cradle and found it correct in all details.

> "Bedded soft in moss and rushes,
> Safely bound with reindeer sinews."

PERIOD III: RELATED ACTIVITIES

The next day I had a lesson in construction. Each child made a cradle, previously drawn and worked out in tinted paper. The results were splendid. I also taught the song, "Wah-Wah-Taysee, Little Fire-Fly."

My lesson was rounding out as a complete unit, for it embraced history, music, drawing and English. I really thought the children had been interested in the lesson, for the next day they brought me a bow and arrow, a pair of moccasins and pieces of birch-bark.

PERIOD IV: ORAL READING AND SILENT READING

Thinking the poem entirely too long for oral reading, I divided it into sections and had some parts read orally, while others were assigned as silent reading during the library hour. I asked the pupils to do two things: (1) enjoy the story and be able to tell it so that some one else might be interested in reading it; (2) select the part they individually liked best and be able to read it aloud at the next reading period. When I thought we had fairly launched upon the study of the poem, I introduced Longfellow to the children, briefly telling of his life, and hanging his picture before the class.

PERIOD V: DRAMATIZATION

A very natural outcome of our study of this delightful poem, was the desire to dramatize it. Every child must have a chance to take part.

Result of lessons.—Days afterwards, many children told me how very much they enjoyed the "lovely" poem, *Hiawatha.* It seemed that the charm with which Longfellow tells of the life of an Indian child had been breathed into the children's very atmosphere.

READING PROJECTS

Among the aims of the teacher of reading through all the grades is to teach pupils to read that they may feel "at home" not only with their class readers but also with any book of their grade and comprehension level. In a word, reading is considered today not merely as a one-period school lesson but rather as a most serviceable gateway to any subject, to any written or printed matter. Hence the stress nowadays upon such phrases as, "the library table", "the library period", "wide reading for enrichment of experience", and the like. The project method has its place in reading because of this new viewpoint. The last report preceding this section is a fair illustration of one sort of project.

***Project* defined.**—There is a broad and there is a narrow definition of the word *project*, which it will be well to explain before further details are presented. The broader view of the term considers it in the light of an educative situation responsive to a felt need in the child's life. The project may thus be any piece of work which is intimately associated with something one has set his heart upon to do, and the accomplishment of which will yield him personal satisfaction as the fulfilment of a desire or a cherished ambition. The narrower view of the term would restrict its use to a school activity of more or less limited scope and yet with some positive or concrete achievement as its goal.

A caution.—Unless the teacher plans the project with care she may discover that while it has afforded pleasure in doing and satisfaction in accomplishment a certain degree of definiteness is lacking. The pupils have been entertained, it is true, but have they been educated in the

sense of their having developed specific abilities and skills, or having cultivated right attitudes toward learning? Besides, there may be a looseness of organization which, if not closely watched and sensibly guided, may lead to disciplinary problems of a generally disturbing sort. Freedom is necessary in the working out of a project—but it should be directed freedom if it is to see specific worthwhile results attained.

To make the project effective as an educational instrument the aim must be definite, and the means arranged to fulfill this aim properly centralized and coördinated from beginning to end. It should be remembered, too, that care is necessary to prevent the term *project* from becoming synonymous with *time-waster* or *economy-of-learning destroyer.* There is no reason why a good method should develop the status of a classroom rite. Nothing sacred attaches to the word; only something useful.

Holiday and festival programs as projects.—Much more use should be made of seasonal happenings. A peculiarly vital motivation is natural at such times as Thanksgiving, Christmas, New Year, the February Birthdays, Arbor Day, Memorial Day, Flag Day, to mention only certain major times and occasions. A little reflection will reveal the rich possibilities of correlating geography, history, business, science, and kindred factual subjects with imaginative literature in a meaningful reading whole. Besides, any one of these reading-wholes may utilize and vitalize both oral and written composition-teaching, memorization, and dramatization, to list but a few. The young teacher will be well advised to add, whenever she can, a *classroom program period* to the regular school assembly period each week. Many of the major principles

of good teaching will thus find natural and concrete expression: *self-activity, socialization, individual differences, supervised study, problem-project.* The cautions we should add are, first, that a time-limit be set as well for any given part as for the whole of this festival or holiday project, and, second, that the program be made not too elaborate.

Practical everyday problems as projects.—Various practical subjects are "in the air", so to speak, today. The wise teacher will make the most of these. When radio, automobiles, flood-control, and what-not are interesting everybody, it would seem rather futile, if not worse, to spend all of the pupil's reading time with the pleasures of poetry and imaginative literature. This is, of course, not at all to imply that such matter is in itself futile or that it should be set aside or neglected. It is to state, however, what should be evident to all teachers as it is so clearly evident to most practical people outside of the schoolroom—that children should be taught such skills as will enable them efficiently to do the necessary reading of everyday life as well as such other skills as will enable them to read literature for enjoyment.

A project outlined.—In such a project as that detailed below, training is provided for many of the abilities needed in satisfactory silent and oral reading for comprehension, namely: (1) the ability to interpret what is read; (2) the ability to compare facts read; (3) the ability to judge between this opinion and that; (4) the ability to answer questions and follow directions; and (5) the ability to select pertinent facts—briefly, the ability to read independently.

The class is to read a story of the boyhood of a famous American inventor, Thomas A. Edison. The teacher

begins her lesson-cycle by referring to the electric lights in the classroom, by showing pictures illustrative of several of Edison's inventions, or by telling of the rise of Edison from newsboy to inventor of worldwide fame. In particular, there will be a brief account of how young Edison was rewarded by the father of a little girl whom the boy saved from a train accident. Thought and fact questions are then asked and an outline of the story to be read worked out by pupils and teacher together.

The drill period is used to improve the pronunciation of the proper names or other words occurring in the lesson. Discussion follows when consideration is accorded Edison's habits of work—this, in preparation for a written composition, such as an imaginary letter by young Edison to his benefactor or an expression of opinion upon the value of the inventor's accomplishments. The class itself, under the direct guidance of the teacher, may write on the board an outline of a composite account of certain phases of Edison's life, the whole to be prepared for a class booklet which will incorporate treatment of each of the more important inventions.

During the library hour there may be a perusal of a variety of easy writings bearing upon the mechanical and scientific matters considered in the oral and written lessons that have gone before. Oral composition based on pupils' outside reading will probably follow. If time and circumstances permit, there may be planned a valuable additional silent reading lesson preliminary to a drawing lesson, the subject of which is the making of a working diagram of the mechanism of a phonograph or electric bulb. The directions will be prepared beforehand by the teacher.

The last period to be devoted to this project may well

be set aside for a classroom assembly program, entitled, "What Americans Have Invented," or some similar topic. Readings about Edison, and others—Fulton, Morse, McCormick—may be part of this program. If Edison is the chief figure of interest, phonographic records may be used. It may also be possible to have the school shop contribute exhibits—models of various inventions, for example.[1]

Practice Drill[2]

As has been indicated earlier in this chapter, drills for the class, the group, and the individual, continue in the third year as they did in the first two years. Much seat-work should be provided. There will be the usual phonic drill; the exercises in ready recognition of words; the tests, both standard and improvised; the flash cards to increase the eye-span, to lessen the number of eye-pauses, and to develop the rate of silent reading; the word study and vocabulary building including synonym work, and the blending of phonograms and initial consonants; and the many other useful exercises for the brief, separate practice periods that are so important if the regular reading period is to hold promise of satisfactory results. Ten minutes of well-planned, snappily-conducted drill practice will work wonders when frequently repeated with accuracy as a main objective.

Vocabulary building.—Vocabulary building with children is not altogether unlike vocabulary building with adults. Our word-store is derived from experience with people, things, events—that is, with the warp and woof of

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[1]Of course, it is understood that such a project may require as much as a fortnight's time. Read J. F. Stevenson's *The Project Method of Teaching.*

[2]See page 64 for a convenient summary of the laws of effective recall.

life itself—as well as from contacts with books and other printed and written matter. Conversation about people, and everything else which makes daily living varied, interesting, and wholesome, with wider and wider reading opportunity, will lead to a normal enlargement of the pupils' vocabulary stock.

The teacher must see to it that frequent conversational periods are set aside, and that during such periods new words are introduced, not obtrusively or too numerously, of course, but, as it were, inevitably. Topics will be sufficiently interesting to pique the child's curiosity. There is an obvious interplay between words and ideas. Words will suggest ideas, and new ideas will necessitate new words. Number work, local geography, nature—in fact all of the school subjects, provide opportunity here. How far this method is from giving out long, disconnected lists of new words for dull drill purposes is evident enough.

Besides the widening of the child's experimental background and broader acquaintance with life through actual contact and through books, both properly motivated, there must also be employed certain definite pedagogical means. One of these means is a study of synonymous words and phrases through exercises—perhaps on flash cards—carefully prepared so as to enable the child to supply equivalent or approximate terms. A wide street, for example, may suggest a broad street, a high building, a tall building, a quickly moving train, a swiftly moving bus. Another useful means of vocabulary building is found in the preparation of word-lists. One list may comprise names of persons or places which appear in a story, the pupil adding *descriptive* words from the selection, with any others they may glean from a glossary or dictionary. A second list may exhibit words of action

from a story already read, the pupil supplying appropriate modifying words.

The tests mentioned in the next section should prove suggestive of several opportunities in this matter of vocabulary growth. Compositions, both oral and written, will also assist. Above all, however, wide reading, conversation about it, and a conscious purpose on the teacher's part to stimulate a feeling for word-values, will do more than anything else to increase the pupil's word-stock. The value of additional readers and of a class library table is apparent.[1]

A recent study[2] of third-year children's conversation has shown rather remarkable vocabularies in young pupils. Two periods of fifteen minutes a day, one at the beginning of the morning session, the other at the close of the afternoon, revealed the fact that thirty-one average boys and girls of a San José, California, public school had not only a sum total of usable words not far from 50,000 but also a wide range of interest in subject matter. During the one hundred twenty-five periods of record the pupils indicated word-spread totals of from approximately 650, when "correction of English usage" was the matter in hand, to nearly 13,000, when the subject was "home-play". The pupils, it seems, had been accustomed to a great degree of freedom in both the kindergarten and the first two years. From earlier days of teacher-guidance these pupils had graduated to a time when they might control their own groups and choose the topics upon which they wished to converse. It may also be remarked that, besides free conversation, there was ample provision for

[1]The student should review pages 32–35 where the parts played by phonetics and word recognition are discussed.

[2]By Claire T. Zyve, as reported in *Teachers College Record.*

library periods, book discussions, and dramatization. Altogether it would appear that spontaneous utterance, skillfully planned and prepared for, is likely to yield abundant results of a satisfying kind.

The student should make thoughtful notes upon the bearing of such a study as that just described, not only upon the growth of pupils' vocabulary[1] but also upon the larger problem of interpretation. Similar studies might easily be made for any other grade, during periods of varying length and according to the special limitations of time and opportunity or of the intelligence quotient of the children.

Seatwork.[2]—However thorough the teaching in the first two years, there will still be need of group and individual seatwork in the third-year reading classroom. The following suggestions will not only serve as a summary of previous discussion on this matter but will also offer a general view of this important adjunct to the reading process of the primary grades. Additional devices will no doubt occur to the resourceful though perhaps inexperienced student and teacher as well as to any teacher of experience.

1. MAKING THINGS (AN ENVELOPE)

A square of paper, preferably colored, is given to each child. Another paper with the following directions is also given out:

1. Take this paper and fold it so that *the two opposite points meet.*

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[1]The student will be interested in GATES's *A Reading Vocabulary for the Primary Grades*—an inexpensive booklet.

[2]An excellent work in this connection is "Practice Exercises and Checks in Silent Reading in the Primary Grades," by LAURA ZIRBES. Another will be found in "Practice Exercises in Careful Silent Reading," Sets One and Two, by GUY T. BUSWELL. A third may be had in *Study Period Projects*, Grades 1–3, by E. MERTON.

Fold the paper so as *to find the center*. Crease this center lightly.

3. Open paper.
4. Fold *each* of the *three corners* to the center crease.

Each child reads directions silently. Directions may be written on blackboard. It will be noted, that the teacher especially stresses reading to follow directions.

Other objects that may be made are baskets, pictures, picture frames, valentines.

Simple games may be played, following specifically prepared directions.

2. ILLUSTRATING A STORY

See pages 147–151, 177, and 187-188.

3. MATCHING SENTENCES WITH PICTURES

Small pictures represent children or others in various activities—playing ball, skipping rope, playing hide-and-seek, marbles, driving an automobile. Descriptive sentences are given out with these pictures. The pupil is directed to match them.

Another form of matching may be the following: A story is read. Questions and answers about the story are handed out to the pupils who are directed to match them properly. Rereading of story may be permitted for self-check-up, a beginning in the long process of fruitful self-criticism.

It will be noted that (2) and (3), especially stress comprehension of sentences.

4. RECONSTRUCTING A STORY

An old, outworn reader may provide the story to cut up into sentences. The sentences are put into an envelope. The pupil is directed to arrange the sentences in the proper order and be prepared to tell the story they make.

5. SUGGESTING SCENES FOR A MOTION PICTURE

Pupils read a story and suggest which scenes they would like in a motion-picture. They afterwards draw these scenes. The teacher should guide the selection of these scenes to bring out the main points in the story.

It will be noted that (4) and (5), especially stress organization of a story.

6. Games Based on Tests

True and false sentences.—Pupils illustrate the sentences checked as true.

Another form of true-false work may be the following: A number of sentences—some true, some false—are given the children who are directed to put the true in one pile, the false in another. Oral check-up will be of obvious value.

Completion of sentences.—Each pupil receives a set of sentence-cards prepared from a selection to be read. One or more important words will have been omitted. Pupils read the story, supply the missing words and illustrate them as far as possible.

Another form of this test may be the following: A poem, story, or part of a story is illustrated by a picture, underneath which appear the first words of a rhyme or simple prose sentence. The pupils are directed to study the picture and complete the sentence below it by the proper selection of words or phrases to be found in envelopes on the desks.

7. Matching Words and Pictures

The teacher prepares a chart of pictures of flowers, trees, animals, birds, toys, simple geometric figures such as square, circle, etc. Beneath each picture is its name or title. For these picture-names flash or perception cards are provided. Pupils are directed to match the card-names with the picture-names. A second set of cards should also be prepared. On these cards are words indicating color, size, shape, etc. Pupils are directed to match these words with the pictures.

It will be observed that (6) and (7), especially stress vocabulary building.

8. Follow-Up

A follow-up set of questions should make it a point to be brief, definite, vitally interesting, novel, and meaningful. Such a set prepared for a story should direct the pupils first to re-read the selection carefully and then to answer a set of well phrased

questions. The drawing of pictures may follow these questions. Significant persons or simple scenes should be selected.

9. Thought-Whole Questions and Answers

a. Questions may be set up upon the main thought-wholes of a story. Pupils are directed to reread the selection and write a brief statement explaining or describing each of the titles.

b. Pupils are directed to write out titles for the main thought-wholes. The teacher may indicate how many there should be.

10. Pupils' Own Questions

A good exercise is to have pupils re-read a selection, or read a new selection, and write out brief, simple questions of their own, which other pupils will try to answer. Pupils should be encouraged to ask good, sensible questions to bring out the main point of the selection. It is to be observed here, however, that too much is not to be expected of third-grade pupils. They have been writing for little more than a year, perhaps less, and probably they have been studying spelling only since the beginning of the second year.

11. Pupils' Evaluation of Characters, Scenes, Etc.

Pupils read a story or poem and arrange the characters or scenes in the order of their importance or interest, briefly telling why in each case.

Obviously, 9, 10, and 11 are intended to stress thoughtful reading and judgment. They may be used to greatest advantage with the best readers in the class.

Tests and Testing[1]

It should always be borne in mind that many of the greatest values to be derived from the ability to read are so intangible as to defy measurement. It should also be

[1]An excellent little book upon the matter of this section is Robert S. Ellis's *Standardizing Teachers' Examinations and the Distribution of Class Marks.*

iterated and reiterated that testing must not be so administered as to stifle interest in reading. Such values as appreciation of a beautiful book, love of a story or of one of its characters, delight in a scene depicted, may be deep and real to children, making testing seem perhaps both futile and absurd. Nevertheless, well-prepared tests have their proper place in the educational scheme of things if the teacher will only remember not to make testing an end but rather a means, and not to expect too much or to hope for that which tests were never intended to accomplish.

A word should be said here to distinguish the standardized from the unstandardized test. The standardized test has the advantage of most careful, expert preparation and very wide administration to large numbers of children. Results of each test have been scientifically collated and studied, and norms or standards of achievement set up for the comparative study of groups and individuals. On the other hand, standardized tests are not always ready to hand, even though obtainable, and may not precisely fit the teaching situation of the moment.

Although the unstandardized classroom tests improvised by teachers cannot lay claims to the scientific advantages of the standardized tests, it may be maintained that they have the practical values of availability and suitability to a particular teaching situation. In a single school over a period of years, local standards of practical worth may be set up. Likewise, it is possible for teachers within a given grade to establish reading norms of their own under the special conditions that confront them. Such local standards and norms may prove exceedingly serviceable. If possible, however, all such tests should be checked by more widely standardized results.

It is understood, of course, that it is not necessary to prepare as many tests as follow for every reading lesson. A wide variety of tests is given merely to show the possibilities and to indicate the kinds of reading abilities that should receive selective attention.

Tests for the reading of a factual story.[1]—If the pupils are above normal, or if a selection of equal difficulty has preceded, the test may accompany the pupils' reading; if the pupils are normal, or somewhat below, the test should follow their reading. That is to say, with rapid or brighter children tests may play a very large part in the silent reading process, while with slower pupils of the same grade, or with unfamiliar matter, the procedure may require the more constant direction of the teacher during an oral reading period preceding the silent reading testing time.

THE STORY: "A Knight of the Air"[2]

"I don't believe they'll get away today. It's too cloudy."

"Yes, I think you are right. It's also very windy."

"I wonder who will be the first to make it."

"Maybe some one we have never heard of before."

"Maybe."

A chat like this might have been heard on any one of the early days of May in the year 1927. There was great excitement on Curtiss Field on Long Island, not far from New York.

For a long time a number of airmen had been planning to fly to Paris, the capital of France, three thousand miles away. The weather, however, was not what it should be for such a dangerous flight.

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[1]See PROFESSOR W. S. GRAY's "The Value of Informal Tests of Reading Accomplishment." In educational literature the term *informal* is frequently used for *unstandardized* and *improvised.*

[2]By the author.

On the twelfth day of May, a speck appeared far off in the sky. Everybody looked. It flew nearer and nearer. On the side of the big airplane could soon be read the words, *The Spirit of St. Louis*.

Within a few minutes the airplane was close to the field. When it came to a stop, a young man stepped out. His name was Charles Lindbergh. In *The Spirit of St. Louis* he had flown across the United States.

"Who is this Lindbergh?" "Will he try to make the flight to France?" Every one was asking such questions as these.

More than a week now passed. The same young man from the West looked at his "big bird". He tested its motor. He examined it from end to end. A person who happened to be standing near by must have thought that he was careful, very careful. It was now Friday the twentieth of May.

Suddenly, *The Spirit of St. Louis* began to stir. It was moving slowly, then more and more swiftly. Ah! the plane was leaving the earth and rising into the air. At his seat was the young man who had dropped in only a short time before. He had on his flying suit. Up, up, away he flew until his plane was lost to view.

All of that evening the lone airman held to his course. Out over the Atlantic Ocean he steered. Night came on, but still he flew. Clouds and darkness were his only companions.

Day dawned and our Knight of the Air was flying near the shore of a foreign land. An Irish fisherman looked up. The young airman called to him, and then kept on and on and on.

News of Lindbergh's flight had reached France. On the great flying field near Paris, people were anxiously waiting. Evening of the second day had come, but *The Spirit of St. Louis* was not yet in sight.

An hour or two more and the whir of the airplane's motor could easily be heard. Lights had been turned on to guide the brave young flyer.

At last, the plane came down, closer and closer to the earth.

"I am Charles Lindbergh." The words have become famous all over the world. The young Knight of the Air had dropped from the sky to the soil of France, our country's old, old friend.

Tests for Rate or Speed

(Rate is not to be considered regardless of comprehension. Questions upon the subject matter should follow the speed test.)

1. Set a time-limit, say, of three minutes. Let each pupil rise at his desk as he finishes within this period. Estimate the number of words or lines that every pupil has read. Prepare a chart and a graph to indicate the various scores and the general tendency of the class rate.

2. Set a time-limit but check for length of time it takes each pupil to read the selection. Prepare chart and graph.

Tests for Comprehension

1. *Multiple-choice or best answer*

The pupils are directed to check (√) one sentence in each of the following ten groups, according as it more nearly corresponds to the thought of the story.

Everybody knew when the airmen would take off.
Some persons believed it was too cloudy and windy.
One man alone was sure of the time of the flight.

There was great excitement on Curtiss Field.
There was no excitement at all on Curtiss Field.
Only a few people were excited on Curtiss Field.

No one had been planning to fly to Paris.
A number of airmen had been planning to fly but were waiting for better weather.
Lindbergh alone was planning to fly to Paris.

The Spirit of St. Louis had come from New York.
The Spirit of St. Louis had crossed the United States.
The Spirit of St. Louis had flown from the West.

Lindbergh started at once to fly to Paris.
Lindbergh spent the next few days doing nothing.
Lindbergh waited for a few days and then examined his plane.

The flight to Paris was made in daytime only.
The flight to Paris was made in the nighttime only.
The flight to Paris was made in daytime and nighttime.

The knight of the air arrived in France as day dawned.
The knight of the air reached the foreign shore at dawn.
The knight of the air flew near the foreign shore at dawn but did not reach Paris until evening.

France was not expecting Lindbergh.
The French people were anxiously waiting for Lindbergh.
Nobody in France cared about when Lindbergh arrived.

Lindbergh came down in the dark.
Lindbergh came down in the daylight.
Lindbergh came down on a lighted field.

The American airman just smiled as he landed.
The American airman spoke for a long time to the people on the landing field.
The American airman said, "I am Charles Lindbergh."

2. *True-false*

Before each of the following sentences write *T*, if it is true, and *F*, if it is not true.

——Nobody was on Curtiss Field in May 1927.
——Curtiss Field is on Long Island.
——Lindbergh was the only one who planned to fly to Paris.
——At first, *The Spirit of St. Louis* appeared only as a speck in the sky.
——Lindbergh was just a young boy.
——People did not care to know whether Lindbergh would fly to Paris.
——Charles Lindbergh did not take off at once.
——Lindbergh was very careful before he started.
——Lindbergh was only part of the night flying across the ocean.
——Lindbergh was alone.

3. *Who? What? When? Why? Where? How?*

Answer each of these questions in as few words as you can.

Who is meant by the knight of the air?
What was the name of his plane?
When did he make his flight to Paris?
Why were people excited on Curtiss Field?
Where is Curtiss Field?
How far had Lindbergh come?
What did Lindbergh do just before he started?
How long did it take him to cross the ocean?
Where did he land?
What did he say when he landed?

4. *Completion*

The pupils are directed to complete each of the following sentences:

Curtiss Field is on..
The airmen were planning to fly to...
This was in the month of ....
Across the country came a young airman named....................
His plane was called ....
When he had crossed and reached the French flying field, he said:

5. *Matching*

In the left hand column are five names. In the right hand column are five parts of sentences. The pupils will match the words or names with their correct sentence-parts.

1. Lindbergh	is a flying field on Long Island
2. *The Spirit of St. Louis*	is the city to which Lindbergh flew.
3. May, 1927	was the name of the famous plane.
4. Curtiss Field	was a young American airman
5. Paris	was the month when several airmen wanted to go across the Atlantic.

6. *Rearranging sentences*

After the pupils have matched the sentence-parts with the proper names, they will rearrange the five sentences in their correct order.

7. *Reading for the main or most important thought*

Perhaps the pupils will be able to read so attentively that they may be called upon to single out the one most important thought or character or thing in the matter read. Helpful discussion may accompany this search. Re-reading, both silent and oral, might follow.

8. *Reading for the two or three main points of the selection*

This may be reserved for the brighter pupils. Questions like the following might be put them:

What were the airmen expecting to do?
Who came to Curtiss Field from across the country? Why?
What kind of young man was he?
In what way was he received in Paris?

9. *Other tests for comprehension*

Prepare a number of titles for the paragraphs or main parts read. Instruct the pupils to identify the parts from the titles.

Prepare a number of sentences, such as the following, the pupils being asked to underscore the correct word in each case:

Curtiss Field is on *Long Island; Manhattan Island; Staten Island.*

Lindbergh flew across the Atlantic in *June; December; May.*

Tests for the reading of an imaginative story

The Story[1]

In the works of the Swedish writer, Peter Christen Asbjornsen, there is a story of a sad princess who could not laugh. Her father, the king, was much distressed. His problem was solved in the following manner: A certain wood-cutter had three sons one of whom, the youngest, was generally set down for a fool or

[1]The story may be read in the *Elson Third Reader*, pages 86–90.

simpleton. The older sons were sent out to cut wood. Their mother gave each his lunch—to the one, pancakes, to the other, some cake. A little old man met the sons in turn, and they refused to share their lunch with him. Both met with accidents—one cutting his arm, the other striking his leg. Now the youngest son enters the story. He seeks permission to cut wood and, in spite of parental misgivings, is permitted to do so. His mother packs him off, however, with some plain cake and not too much of it. The little old man meets "the simpleton" who shares his lunch with him and receives his reward. He is told to cut down a certain tree at the roots of which he will find something of value. This he does and discovers a goose with golden feathers.

At the inn, where the youngest son of the wood-cutter stays at night, the inn-keeper's three daughters become eager to possess a feather or two of the young man's goose. The oldest, upon touching the bird, sticks fast to it. The second daughter sticks to the first and the third to the second. With the three girls hanging on in this fashion "the simpleton" leaves the inn in the morning. On the way two boys try to rescue the girls but they, too, are held fast. Finally, the goose, its owner and a long line of people enter a large town where live the king and the princess who could not laugh. The queer sight under her very window forthwith encouraged tears of laughter. The story ends with the wood-cutter's simpleton son a prince; for the king had promised his daughter in marriage to whoever would make her laugh.

Tests for Comprehension[1]

1. Read to find the main points of the story:

   What part "the little old man" plays in this story.
   What part the simpleton plays.

2. Read to find out certain important facts:

   What each of the brothers tried to do.
   How the simpleton was rewarded.
   What the youngest son did with what he found.

[1]For tests in rate or speed, consult page 222.

What each of the inn-keeper's daughters tried to do.
What "the richest king in the world" promised.
How the princess was made to laugh.
What "the wood-cutter's youngest son" became.

3. Cross out the sentences that do not belong to this story.

There was once a farmer who had four sons.
There was once a wood-cutter who had three sons.
There was once a cobbler who had three daughters.

The oldest son was a simpleton.
The youngest son was a simpleton.
The second son was a simpleton.

(The student may easily follow these with others.)

4. Pupils will check (√) the right endings for these sentences:

There was once a wood-cutter	who loved his three sons. —— who was very proud of his two older boys. ——
The wood-cutter's wife	was a mean, old woman. —— was a kind mother. ——

(The student may easily carry this farther.)

5. Pupils will draw the following pictures (to test their ability to recall the main thread of the story):

The oldest brother leaving the little old man.
The second brother chops at a tree.
The youngest brother speaks to the little old man.
The simpleton finds something at the roots of the tree.
In the middle of the night the oldest daughter tries to take "one golden feather".
The king makes a promise.
The simpleton gets his reward.

6. Write the correct answer below each of these questions:

How many sons had the wood-cutter?
What kind of mother had these boys?

What errand did each try to do?
How did each of the older boys treat the little old man?
How did the youngest boy treat him?
What did "the simpleton" find at the roots of the tree?
What did he do with it?
What was the king's promise?
What made the princess laugh?
What came of it?

7. The pupils receive envelopes containing questions and answers on separate cards. Each pupil is asked to arrange questions and their answers, putting aside those that cannot be used:

Questions:
Who was the father of the three boys?
What was the youngest boy called?
Who was kindly treated by the youngest son?
Who was the person who had never laughed?
Who made a promise?

Answers:

the king	the princess
a simpleton	the little old man
a wood-cutter	a greedy girl
a blacksmith	a farmer

Tests for outside reading.—Even in the first year a well-equipped classroom will have a library table with few or many carefully selected books. In some schools special rooms have been set aside as children's libraries. Gradually, public library systems are establishing children's reading rooms. All of this means that the present-day child, who is taught by modern reading methods, may be expected to read beyond the limited covers of a single book. It therefore becomes part of the teacher's duty not only to guide this "outside" or supplementary reading but to devise some form of "check-up" This should not be

of such a character as to inhibit a reasonable freedom of choice on the part of the pupil, or to chill his enthusiasm for reading. It should, however, inform the teacher not only of the general reading tendency of her class but also of the pupils' individual tastes, and thus lead to more intelligent guidance.

Check-up.—A simple form of "check-up" is to note the books taken from or read at the library table, the books inquired about, and the gift-books requested by the children at Christmas and birthday time. A somewhat similar check upon tastes in reading may be made at the close of each week, a record being made of the selections that have "taken" and of those that have not. The most popular selections may be listed on the board or posted on the bulletin board.

As the pupils advance in general school work and acquire greater writing facility—for some pupils good results will begin to show toward the end of the second year, for others not until the middle or end of the third year—a simple card or book for recording childish impressions may be kept and periodically examined. The teacher may also prepare lists of titles and send mimeographed copies home with the children as "gift suggestions."

Tests for word recognition and vocabulary building.—The importance of word-recognition in the reading process can hardly be over-emphasized. First of all, it is largely responsible for rate in reading. Secondly, it has much to do with improving comprehension, since it tends to release attention for larger thought-wholes. Thirdly, ready recognition assists vocabulary building. By word-recognition is meant, of course, not merely a visual act, but rather a perceptual, or meaningful, experience.

Teaching suggestions.—Students will be able themselves to make up exercises appropriate to the stimulation of word-recognition and vocabulary building. Select a suitable poem or prose piece, from which concrete words may be singled out. Print the words on slips of paper or on the blackboard. Encourage re-reading by questions, such as: What words tell you this or that? What words explain things to you? What words make the picture clearer? On what lines of the selection do you find these words?

Another good plan is to arrange a number of the important words in a selection according to several classifications, such as: names of persons or places, "doing" words, "where" or "when" words, words which tell about other words. Pupils are required to check words in one or the other of these lists. Classification exercises are especially valuable for children who have difficulty in recognizing words when they are separated from the familiar context of a particular selection.

A third way of improving pupils' ready recognition and of building up their vocabulary accordingly is to prepare words in groups, such as, rhyming words, "like-meaning" words, "different-meaning" words, "like-sound, different-meaning" words, "opposite-meaning" words. Shuffle these words, list them, and require pupils to rearrange them according to their groups.

(The student should work out a lesson to meet each of these three suggestions.)

Tests for eye-span increase.—Flash-cards with phrases of varying length are exposed before the pupils for, say, half a second, according to the level of the children's reading achievement. Pupils tell or write what they see.

Score each pupil upon the number of words accurately noted, disregarding spelling errors. In such a test as this keep the exposure time-limit constant.

Flash-cards are exposed repeatedly for the same length of time. The pupils are scored upon the number of exposures required for accurate recognition.

It should be noted here that in all flash-card tests it is not the recognition of the individual word that is being tested but the length of eye-span, that is, the number of words that the eye can recognize or "take-in" at a single eye-fixation. The teacher should, therefore, prepare her flash-cards with care that the words are familiar to the pupils.

Tests for vocalization, finger-pointing, etc.—Very important is the improvement of reading through the minimizing or elimination of certain accompanying undesirable habits, such as: vocalization, lip-movement, head-movement, finger-pointing, wandering attention, eye-strain, and other signs of bodily fatigue. The teacher should make a careful study of her pupils and prepare a chart with notes upon these undesirable habits which tend so much to retard reading progress. The chart should record the dates of the first examination upon these points, and the dates of subsequent periodic tests. It will be well not to mention the tests to the pupils. Otherwise, self-consciousness would probably vitiate the effort. There are many causes for the continuing inhibitions of the sort in mind. Nervousness, immaturity, infrequent opportunity to read simple matter, and poor early training are among the causes. The teacher's personal interest, constant sympathy, and watchfulness can do much in a remedial way.

Standard tests[1].—Among the best standard tests for third year reading may be mentioned the following: *Standardized Oral Reading Paragraphs; Gray Oral Reading Check Tests; Ayres-Burgess Picture Scale; Courtis Silent Reading Test; Haggerty Reading Examination, Sigma I; Monroe's Standardized Silent Reading Tests I and II; Stanford Achievement Test; Reading Examination; Stone Series of Narrative Reading Tests; Thorndike-McCall Reading Scale for Comprehension of Sentences; Starch Silent Reading Test.*

It is possible that a particular school may conduct one or more of these tests as a regular part of school or class procedure. Nevertheless, it is well for every teacher to know something of the technique of administering tests. A few suggestions may be in point here: The teacher should carefully follow the printed directions in detail and with precision. She should chart or graph the results and explain them to the pupils, who should also be informed of what is expected of third-grade children. The results should be used as a guide to teaching procedure, especially in determining the class-groups and the particular difficulties of individual pupils. There should follow a careful follow-up of remedial measures.

The teacher, it is well to repeat, will, of course, note the fact that genuine appreciation of good literature may not be measured by standardized tests. Nor may dramatic ability or love of good books and reading. These and kindred abilities will be discovered in less formal ways—a glint in the child's eyes, his absorption in a story, his frequent trips to the library table, his eager, intelligent

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[1]The student will be interested in *Standard Test Lessons in Reading, Books One, Two and Three*, by W. A. McCall and L. M. Crabbs. These are in a series of very practical and inexpensive lesson booklets.

questioning, his conversation, and what-not. The wise teacher makes note of these and guides her course accordingly.

Review.—Reading in the third year is a natural continuation of the process developed in the second year and earlier. Oral reading should not be neglected but should have its part with silent reading, the one at times aiding and supplementing the other. The practical, purposeful activity incident to classroom projects is of importance. Practice drill work will continue, and testing, both standardized and unstandardized, will be carefully conducted.

STUDY PROBLEMS

A. Discussion Topics

1. This reported third-year lesson was taught children of average intelligence. What were its good points? What mistakes did the student-teacher make? What recommendations would you offer for improvement in her method?

> I had a list of sight words to drill on, but for lack of time I gave them in a period apart from the reading lesson. It is preferable to drill on such words during the reading lesson. As far as I went the procedure was good, because the story is naturally divided into three parts, and the main thought of each part was brought out. When we dramatized the story, the three parts were called acts, as follows:
>
> Act I.—King Midas receives the golden touch.
> Act II.—The golden touch brings disaster.
> Act III.—When King Midas realizes his foolishness, the golden touch is taken away.
>
> The procedure included the working out of the main thoughts in each part. The children read silently and answered questions after reading parts. They were interested throughout the lesson and were anxious to dramatize the story. They were of average intelligence.

Discuss the merits and demerits of the following:

> The exact procedure of a silent reading lesson is difficult to give, as the procedure may vary, depending on the aim of the lesson. Thus, in the reading of a poem, where the aim would be appreciation, we find the teacher reading the selection as a whole to the pupils before the silent reading lesson begins. However, in prose selections, where the dominant interest for the child is the content, there is no first reading by the teacher. Where the selection or story given is long, it should be broken up into logical divisions and given to the children for silent reading in parts.
>
> The silent reading, under pressure of limited time, if made a regular part of every reading lesson, brings advantages that are far-reaching and permanent. It develops the art of concentrating. It trains the eye to be an efficient tool in thought-getting by subordinating words and symbols to sentences. It insures a thought basis for oral reading. It guarantees better oral reading, for good expression is prompted by comprehension. In short, silent reading seeks to make reading a process of thinking.

3. "Present-day reading is not judged by whether a child can get up and pronounce his words clearly and in a loud voice, or whether he knows his sentences so well that he can read them off without a mistake, or whether he holds his book in his right hand and has his eyes such a distance from the book."
4. "Present-day reading should concern itself with this as its first aim: to master the mechanics of reading. This aim should be realized by the end of the third year."
5. "The sure test of a successful silent reading lesson is to have various children tell what they have read."
6. "Today we are firm believers in the art of silent reading and make use of oral reading only to judge abilities in the technique of reading."
7. "The teaching of the mechanics of reading should not end in the third year."

8. "The fact that silent reading is the type used most frequently, both in school and in adult life, justifies the recommendation that pupils should form habits of thoughtful silent reading from the beginning."—*Twenty-Fourth Yearbook*, page 43.

9. "The fact that oral reading is intimately related to spoken language makes it an economical and desirable means of promoting rapid growth in reading."—*Ibid.*, page 43.

B. Group Research Topics

1. Three or more studies of as many manuals for a joint report upon one of the following topics: (a) suggested methods of procedure in the teaching of silent (or oral) reading in the first three years; (b) the place and treatment of phonics or phonetics in the third year; (c) intrinsic drill exercises for third-year reading.

2. Three or more studies of as many third-grade readers for a joint report upon the following topics: (a) vocabularies; (b) illustrations; (c) helps for the pupils; (d) general physical make-up; (e) content.

3. A report by a committee of five students upon "How to teach silent (or oral) reading to a dull normal (or other specific type) class of the third year." Several experienced teachers should be consulted.

4. A report upon selected reading materials appropriate for dramatization work in a third-year class. Several texts should be consulted.

5. Standardized tests in oral and silent reading for two or three types of pupils in the third year. (Write to publishers for announcements.)

6. Poetry (or prose) suitable for (a) children's reading, and (b) teacher's reading to third-grade pupils. Consult such books as Haliburton and Smith's *Teaching of Poetry in the Grades*, Terman and Lima's *Children's Reading*, and other texts or articles listed in the bibliography.

7. Visual and auditory aids for use in reading lessons of the first three years. Consult Dorris's *Visual Instruction in the Public Schools*. Send for free literature of Victor Phonograph Co., Camden, N. J.

8. A report upon "Devices for Teaching Primary Reading", Chapter X of STORMZAND and McKEE's *The Progressive Primary Teacher.*

9. A holiday festival project for third-grade pupils.

10. A study of third-grade children's vocabularies.

C. INDIVIDUAL RESEARCH TOPICS

1. "Meanings of words should be derived from context." The way in which an adult may do this, with practical adaptation to its use with children.

2. The best uses of dramatization in the first three years. A report upon the practical experience of one or more teachers.

3. A summary of ways and means used by experienced teachers who make their own tests. Consult RUSSELL's *Classroom Tests.*

4. A comparison of results with improvised and standardized tests. Results should derive from practical classroom experiment.

5. Appropriate illustrative material for use in the third year.

6. Practical purposes of silent reading (or oral reading) in the first three years. A study based upon the needs of daily life.

D. THEME ASSIGNMENTS

1. "A teacher who teaches reading well to children of these particular grades (the first three), will find herself more than compensated for her work when her boys and girls ask for more reading material which they can read at home." An illustration may be described or an incident cited.

2. "Good oral reading means not only correct pronunciation but also a clear comprehension of what is read." A personal or an observed experience may be described.

3. "The child formerly prepared the reading lesson at home and came to recite it the next day in school. Today there is no preparation at home, but the child is taught to read in school by a teaching method psychologically sound." Illustrations should be cited.

4. Treatment of the following problem: A number of

children in a third-year class are backward in oral reading. The probable causes as well as specific measures for improvement should be noted. Consult GATES's *The Improvement of Reading*.

5. A brief but careful criticism of the following lesson plan:

Topic: Reading *Selection:* "Hercules and His Labors"
Grade: 3A
Class: Intelligence, difficult to say
Aim: To have children love the story
Illustrative material: Blackboard

Procedure:

a. Teacher chooses the difficult words from the passage: *Greece, country, hero, greatest, Juno, cousin, Jupiter, contrived, Hercules, wicked, cruel, ordered, perform, difficult, impossible.*
b. Meanings are asked for. If the child doesn't know, tell him. Word study made into a game. Teacher calls number, children give the word.
c. Silent reading of a page and a half follows. Teacher walks around the room to make sure every child is reading.

PART III

READING IN THE MIDDLE GRADES—THE PERIOD OF VARIED READING ACTIVITIES

CHAPTER XI

TEACHER AND PUPIL PREPARATION

The problems of Part III.—In Part I the importance and the twofold basis of reading were discussed. The scientifically determined nature of this essential form of human behavior was explained, and the important hygienic implications for classroom procedure were considered. In Part II the practical problems in the teaching of reading in the beginning grades were treated at some length. By the close of this period of reading habit formation, the normal school child, if he has been normally trained, is presumed to have come into possession of reading skills sufficiently varied to enable him to feel at home with the printed page. In Part III we shall carry the pupil through the next three years of his school life. While oral reading will still receive the attention it deserves, silent reading of several kinds of material will be the great objective. By the time the seventh year is reached the child will have enjoyed practically every variety of reading experience within the limits of his age and abilities. Chapter XI will consider various phases of teacher and pupil preparation. Chapter XII will treat of the procedure in teaching children to read orally; and Chapters XIII and XIV, the procedures in teaching children to read silently with pleasure and efficiency.

The main points of Chapter XI.—Before considering specific processes in the period of varied reading activities

the student should understand certain general needs of the period. It is the purpose of this chapter to present a survey of the general problem—the point to which pupils should have progressed in reading, the aims of the middle-grade reading teacher, difficulties that she will meet, the selection of reading material to carry out the aims, and motivation by introductory remarks and illustrative material.

A careful review or survey of the pupils' progress up to the beginning of the fourth year.—The pupil who has passed through the first three years of school should have completed, let us recall, three stages of reading. Before the end of the first year he has passed through two stages: (a) the stage of "preparation for reading," in the kindergarten and the home, when the child has been encouraged to converse about the things, people, and interests of his daily life, to enlarge his scope of ideas, and to engage his oral vocabulary in simple sentence construction that he may be the better able in (b) "the initial period of reading instruction," to make ready, meaningful, and accurate interpretations of the written and printed word. During his first year the pupil has learned, we may assume, the mechanics of oral and silent reading and is capable of using what he has learned in reading simple selections with reasonable fluency, accuracy, and comprehension. His reading matter, we remember, has been presented, in the beginning, on the blackboard or on large pieces of paper or oaktag, on flash cards, in picture books, perhaps in his pre-primer booklet, and later in his primer and first reader. During his second and third years, he has passed through (c) "the period of rapid progress in fundamental attitudes, habits, and skills."

Now, at the beginning of the fourth stage of his reading

progress, the pupil should be able to make use of what he has been taught. The teacher should not, however, take uniform progress for granted. If she does, she will probably be sharply disillusioned during the first reading hour with her class. The expected abilities will hardly be evident in some of the pupils—perhaps, it may seem, in a majority of them.

In varying degree, lack of progress will be noticeable in every class. Normal development may not have been maintained for any one or more of many reasons. Poor teaching will account, in part, for this situation. Indolence of the teacher, her ignorance of modern methods, her ultra-conservatism, her too frequent absence may all bear a measure of the responsibility. Perhaps, too, there has been a constant overturn in the teaching personnel. On the other hand, the pupils themselves may have been irregular in attendance. Illness, removal of the family from one place to another with the astonishing ease of our modern era, illiteracy[1] or indifference of parents, may likewise have contributed their share. At times, inadequate school equipment—old building, insufficient seating conveniences, few or outdated, outworn textbooks—may also account for unsatisfactory conditions. Overcrowding—forty, fifty, sixty, or more in one room—will be too often the case in a large school system. One or the other of these several causes will have handicapped and consequently very possibly retarded this child or that.

The reading teacher of the fourth year will, therefore, be confronted with a twofold problem. She will have to

[1]Illiteracy in the United States has been estimated to amount to six per cent of the population. Consult *Facts of State Educational Needs*, Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, January, 1923.

provide practice opportunity in the mechanics of the reading process, probably not very dissimilar from the practice of earlier years; and she will be obliged to provide additional opportunity for steady reading progress beyond the normal attainments expected in the first three years.

The fourth-year teacher's attitude.—First of all, let us hope, the teacher will determine to master the problem in both of its phases. It will help any teacher to reflect upon the ultimate value of an attitude which is at once patient, earnest, reasonably resourceful, well-prepared for emergencies, alert for signs of special aptitude, and sympathetically inclined toward the pupils in their difficulties as well as toward those fruits of scientific research which, if interpreted and adapted wisely, will often advance the possibility of improving reading conditions.

Above everything else the young teacher, especially, will have to steel herself against certain subtle enemies to her success. In this respect let it be mentioned that the worst of these enemies will be a pessimistic or cynical attitude of some veteran teacher of the same grade, one perhaps who has been growing a feeling of "what's the use?", or surrendering to the temptation to blame everything upon the children or their parents or the school authorities—something or somebody—no one of them in all probability, wholly or, at any rate, willingly responsible for any given situation. It will assist the teacher to remember that progress of any kind is likely to be slow and tedious; old methods die hard, good and sincere people often differ over the trivial in classroom procedure. Advancing age is apt at times to view new ways askance, and to learn, if it learns at all, with less celerity than youth.

Furthermore, the beginning teacher today has been

generally better, or at least differently, trained professionally and technically. Some of her colleagues will be of an earlier teaching generation. It is hardly to be expected that all teachers will see eye to eye on many school problems. To cite a fact or two, it has been estimated that more than 40 per cent of our American teachers colleges fail to offer courses in the teaching of reading and that modern methods are in use in fewer than half of our classrooms.[1] On the other hand, let it always be remembered that an old-fashioned method in the hands of a gifted teacher may prove superior to a new-fashioned method bungled in practice by a carefree and inexperienced, though well-trained beginner.

The first years of teaching, in whatever subject, are bound to be a time of adjustment of oneself to actual school conditions and of readjustment of viewpoint. One's more or less idealized, theoretical generalizations and solutions of children's learning problems must be adapted to definite, practical, everyday work. The teacher should try to maintain an intelligent optimism. She, too, was once in the seat of an elementary classroom, and she was also perhaps not much better, not much worse, than the pupils in front of her. Among these very children there are the good and the excellent as well as the poor and the indifferent. All must somehow be instructed. That is their birthright; that is the teacher's job. It is also worth while to remember that there will be other teachers to follow, and none will be able to do much more than a very small, though it may well be a vitally important, part of the sum total that is to be done. To each and every one the child will be indebted for this or that in his career.

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[1]Consult H. L. DONOVAN's "Use of Research in Teaching Reading."

The teacher who has a winning personality, tactful skill, and adequate knowledge will contribute most.

Teacher and class.—The first thing to do when a new fourth-year class enters one's room at the beginning of the term is to become acquainted. The children have had three years of experience with teachers and will probably understand their "new teacher" before she understands them. A well-conceived test will soon reveal the ill-prepared, the half-prepared, the fully-prepared in any class no matter what the grade may be. If it is a fall-term class the teacher may find that the long summer vacation has not been to her advantage as a teacher of reading. Recent studies[1] tend to show that the silent reading habits of many pupils suffer between the close and the opening of school, while the habits of some others may have improved through voluntary reading in the summer-time. Together, these groups may cause disconcerting unevenness. Very possibly there may be wider variation in reading abilities than previously existed.

After the tests.—There will now be at hand a time of much repair and rebuilding effort on the teacher's part. Efficient reading habits begun earlier must be reëstablished or at least revived. This may mean a return to the type of lesson—seatwork, practice, or other exercise—used in the beginning grades. The pupils will have to be grouped. A few may be too advanced for their grade and may therefore require specially prepared reading work. At all events, the teacher should keep in mind the fundamental aims and objectives as well as certain basic principles of procedure, with examples of successful practice. It is the purpose

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[1]Consult HARRY E. ELDER's "Effect of Summer Vacation on Silent Reading Ability in the Intermediate Grades" (*Monroe's Standarized Silent Reading Test* was used).

of this third part of our book to indicate what these fundamental aims and objectives are and how the teacher may attempt to achieve them.

The core of middle-grade reading activities.—The solution of the reading problem will require the preparation of various kinds of lessons. These lessons should have as their core the essential purposes of middle-grade reading method. The middle period is one "of wide reading to extend and enrich experience and to cultivate important reading attitudes, habits, and tastes."[1] Its purposes are "to extend the experience of pupils, to quicken their thinking powers, to cultivate a wide variety of interests and tastes in reading, to develop speed in silent reading, and to lay the foundation for study habits. Instruction should also be provided to improve oral reading after habits of silent reading have been well established."[1]

Following are typical lessons which should receive attention in carrying out the general purpose of these grades:

1. Oral reading of poetry and prose for recreation and study.
2. Silent reading of poetry and prose for recreation and study.
3. Memorization of beautiful selections, both poetry and prose, which have permanent cultural value.
4. Reading, principally silent, of not only the selected material of the class reader but also the subject matter of any other book of the grade.
5. Outside assignments for home and library reading.
6. Tests
   a. To diagnose oral and silent reading abilities.
   b. To increase silent reading rate and comprehension.

[1] *Twenty-Fourth Yearbook*, page 25.

7. Special lessons
    a. To foster ability to note the main thought and the important but relatively minor thoughts in a passage read, that is, to develop the sense of organization through a study of thought-wholes.
    b. To improve oral reading expressions.
    c. To promote vocabulary growth[1].
    d. To show the use of important reference books, such as the dictionary and the atlas, and one or the other of the children's encyclopedias.

The importance of the teacher's preparation.—Before the reading lesson begins the teacher should wisely select the material to be read, determine the specific aims to be fulfilled, and think through the situation to discover the most appropriate means of motivation. All of which is to say, simply, that the teacher must carefully prepare herself and her pupils for the reading period. There is just as much reason for such preparation in middle-grade teaching as in that of the beginning grades. The teacher who goes before her class ill-prepared or unprepared is a slacker, to use a word from World War days—and a

[1]It is important to arrange frequent tests of vocabulary progress. In general, such tests may be considered under two heads, namely, those requiring recall and those requiring recognition. Under the first head, we have the test that directs the pupil (a) to give a definition, illustration, or some other identification, or (b) to check the words the meaning of which he understands. Under the second head, we have the test that directs the pupil (a) to make choice of a synonym among several words in series, or (b) to match words in one column with their appropriate definitions in another column. A recent study of these tests may be found in "The Reliability and Validity of Four Types of Vocabulary Tests", by VERNER M. SIMS. From the results of this study it would appear that the least satisfactory is the checking test, while the most valued is that of (a) under the first head referred to above, that is, the giving of a definition, synonym or illustration; and that the most satisfactory group measure of vocabulary is the matching test.

very foolish slacker from the practical as well as from the ethical viewpoint. Unprepared reading lessons are evident enough to an experienced teacher, either supervisor or visitor. Children, too, are soon conscious of the fact that "something's the matter." The lesson drags, discipline deteriorates, and enthusiasm wanes and disappears. Time is wasted. Results are nil, or almost so.

Thoughtful preparation, if conducted along sensible lines, need not hamper a teacher's work. Quite apart from any preparation which she may make, in most lesson periods sufficient surprise will be in store for her to create opportunity for all her initiative and to tax her resourcefulness. Leeway should be provided for this surprise element in every lesson program.

The selection of reading material.[1]—The briefest counsel for selecting reading material might simply be: *Know your class and the individual members of it.* More specifically, it may be said that the pupils' level of comprehension and attainment should be borne in mind. In the selection of factual matter, such as history, geography, and what not, care must be exercised that, so far as possible, sensible correlation obtain, between reading and other school work.[2] In the selection of imaginative literature, such as poetry and fiction, the pupils' individual tastes and cultural needs must be considered.

After all, however, the most important large factor in the choice of reading material is probably the teacher's own cultural background. Her personal reading should be both wide and wise; her personal tastes, refined. The inherent attractiveness of a reading lesson may often pro-

[1]See pages 76 ff., *passim*, and 247.

[2]See pages 314 ff, for illustrations.

ceed from the teacher's desk. Such influence is of the very essence of the high art of teaching. Without it, technique is but an empty husk. This is particularly evident when the teacher reads to her class. Not only the melody and stress of her voice, but also and far more, the latent power of her intellect and spirit behind the words, will linger in the pupils' memory no one knows how long.[1]

In the selection of reading material, the teacher, it may be very true, will be more or less bound by the class reading text, which in some cases very probably has been chosen prior to her appointment. Nowadays, however, new books are numerous, and in at least the more democratically conducted schools, the principal consults the class and grade teachers before ordering them.

On the other hand, the books themselves may offer their own limitations. Teachers will of necessity discover shortcomings in the best of school books. Copyright provisions not infrequently tend to handicap an editor in his desire to include modern subject matter. Conservatism on the part of school boards, and on the part of teachers themselves, will account for some omissions of selections which many teachers might desire and pupils enjoy.[2]

Despite these various drawbacks, the resourceful teacher can do much to remedy the situation. Mechanical reproducing devices are oftentimes at her service, and

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[1]It will repay the student to read CHUBB's *The Teaching of English*, Chapter XIX, "The Choice of Literary Material for the Intermediate Grades."

[2]A few years ago, the author made a study of the courses of study in literature of a number of school systems. The range of acceptability for classroom use was astonishing. The selections scaled from the most conservative—where the emphasis fell heavily upon the classic New England writers—to the most "modernistic"—where anything published prior to 1900 was rare.

excellent reading matter may be had for the asking. One of the most successful geography lessons the author recalls owed much of its effectiveness to the railroad and steamship bulletins that had been collected by a progressive teacher. Within the book itself there is a measure of opportunity for freedom. In the middle grades, since every subject text may be used as a reader, available matter should be ample for at least the study types of reading periods. We have seen beginning teachers make admirable use of typewritten and mimeographed reading selections. While it is true that a printed book is more legible than written or typewritten reading matter, especially for the less capable reader, it is also true that written or duplicated matter, which is clean and well done, is far superior to dirty, worn-out, ill-adapted books.

Let us assume, as we rightly may, that adequately prepared reading material is becoming the rule rather than the exception, and press on to a brief discussion of such valid bases of choice as correlation, individual differences in pupils, their likes and dislikes, and the teacher's personal preferences.

Correlation.—This word is a technical one in educational literature and means the integration of related teaching situations or experiences to the end that they present a unified pedagogic whole. As every one knows, many things bear so close resemblance one to another that, when all are brought together in a meaningful way, the significance of each is not unlikely to be deeper and clearer than if it were presented separately. This much granted, the teacher must beware of forcing the point too fancifully. Elaborate or far-fetched correlation is likely to be provocative of not a little humor where it is not too serious a waste of pupils' time and attention.

It will be well for the teacher to ask herself a few questions in this connection: What have my pupils been reading in their library period? At home? What have they been hearing over the radio, or seeing at the movies? What is the state of their cultural preparedness for the specific task I intend setting them? What are the current events in the world of sport and adventure? What is the time of year? Are the February Birthdays at hand? Is it October, with Columbus Day next week? What lesson am I scheduling in geography, in history, in nature study? What have the pupils been reading in literature? In what ways may I sensibly correlate some at least of these many activities?

Individual differences in pupils—their likes and dislikes.—As we have indicated elsewhere, children differ as the stars. A deep realization of this truth should give a teacher pause before she lightly assigns a reading lesson. What pupils have I this term? What pupils are they, not as determined by a rule of thumb test, but by a carefully prepared search for the truth? Are they dull, mediocre, or bright? Have I a gifted child or two? Have I a subnormal boy in the rear seat? Is the background of most of these pupils drab and gray, or brilliant and colorful? Is the class homogeneous or utterly lacking in intellectual unity and social cohesiveness? For my particular pupils, therefore, will this poem or that prose piece be too difficult? Are its allusions too subtle, its words too delicately shaded in meaning? Will the music of phrase and figure be lost on these particular boys and girls? Shall I be able with this class to sustain interest to the very end as I was able to do with last term's class?

Sufficient attention is not always given the fact that pupils are frequently conscious of the literary quality of

what they are asked to read. A recent study[1] of children's reading interests goes to show that their choices are in accord with their intelligence. The range, too, of children's reading interests is very wide and varies according to their age, their grade group, their level of reading achievement, and the type of material in hand. Contrary to common opinion, perhaps, pupils do not necessarily or naturally display an unusual fondness for fairy tales, legends, folk tales, and the like.[2] When such reading matter has its appeal it is possibly because of certain specific elements, such as plot and surprise. Adventure stories, as has been said in an earlier chapter,[3] are especially attractive to boys, while home and the related experiences of daily life hold the attention of girls. Poetry is much less favored than prose, though the reasons are not evident at times.[4]

The teacher's reading preferences.—Whenever it is possible, other things being equal, it is well for the teacher to select the reading material that has a particularly personal appeal. Generally, one is apt to teach best the subject in which one has a true and abiding interest. As an investigator[5] some years ago discovered, and experience still justifies his finding, "the book the teacher most preferred and was enthusiastic over was pretty generally the one the class preferred." The genuine in ourselves will prove itself in the pupils we teach. Through no other lesson will a teacher's personality count for more, and her

[1]MIRIAM B. HUBER'S *The Influence of Intelligence upon Children's Reading Interests.*

[2]FANNIE W. DUNN in *Interest Factors in Primary Reading Material.*

[3]Page 91.

[4]FANNIE W. DUNN in "Keeping Pace with the Advancing Curriculum."

[5]W. J. WIGHTMAN in "A Study of Reading Appreciation."

influence persist longer, than in a reading lesson wherein sympathetic adjustment of means to ends obtains, and both teacher and taught fairly revel over a rare piece of well-written poetry or prose.

Another point, practically important though relatively minor, may be suggested by the following question: Is the particular selection that I should "just love to teach" short enough for the time that I shall have at my disposal?

Specific reading aims.— Care should be exercised that the reading aims be specific within the broad fields of enjoyment and study. As part and parcel of the process of selection of suitable material for the reading lesson there should be careful consideration of just what it is the teacher purposes to do with it. We are not here concerned with those general aims treated elsewhere, but are more particularly interested in the definite, specific aim of the thirty or forty minutes during which the attention of pupils is directed toward reading the printed page or performing the exercises related thereto.

There is, in the first place, the teacher's pedagogic aim—the object she seeks to accomplish in a particular unit of teaching—an aim, it should be assumed, which is intimately interwoven with her whole teaching program. There is, in the second place, the pupils' aim—the immediate object of their reading activity and the goal of their achievement.

One might easily classify reading aims differently. For example, one may distinguish the following: the factual aim—the provision of specific knowledge to be acquired or ways to solve definite problems; the imaginative aim—the stimulation of the pupil's instinct for discovery and adventure; the inspirational aim—the encouragement of the pupil's aspirations and desires, in the hope

perhaps of profitable action as a worthy end to be achieved; the emotional aim—the exciting of the pupil's ordinary feelings of pity, hope, love, or joy.

All of these classifications have their uses. For convenience' sake two broad reading interests may be set apart for special discussion: (a) enjoyment or recreation, and (b) study or work. The terms are used somewhat loosely inasmuch as it is quite conceivable that, for one thing, study may be enjoyable and that, for another, some forms of enjoyment or recreation may resemble work. The feeling or purpose back of each of these interests must govern its designation. One's attitude will determine which one considers an act to be, work or play.

Reading for enjoyment or recreation.—Aside from such general aims as, for instance, giving pleasure and passing leisure time entertainingly, there are a number of very specific aims, such as:

1. In poetry

   To visualize a landscape (Whittier's "Snowbound"), a noble animal in an act of heroism (Browning's "Tray"), a beautiful field of flowers (Wordsworth's "Daffodils"), or an interesting person (Longfellow's "The Village Blacksmith"); to feel the beauty of melodious words (Poe's "The Bells"); to appreciate the loveliness of home life (Longfellow's "The Children's Hour"); to enter into the joys of country life (Whittier's "The Barefoot Boy"); to note the value of relative insignificance (Emerson's "A Fable"); to thrill with patriotic fervor (Key's "The Star-Spangled Banner"); to be moved by a generous impulse (Shakespeare's "The Quality of Mercy"); to laugh with a poet at an amusing incident (Cowper's "John Gilpin's Ride").

2. In prose

   To feel the broad charity of a great statesman (Lincoln's "Gettysburg Address" or his "Second Inaugural"); to enjoy the humor of a situation ("The Cub-Pilot" in Mark Twain's *Life on the Mississippi*); to appreciate the experience of the hunter of wild life (Seton's *Wild Animals I Have Known*); to see the old American frontier (stories of Daniel Boone); to wander through the land of make-believe (Carroll's *Alice in Wonderland*); to follow an old-time legendary hero (stories of Beowulf, Siegfried, and many another).

These aims may be set for either classroom reading, home hour, or library period. If the aims of classroom reading are achieved, its reflection should be noticeable in the home and in the library. Likewise, if much outside reading is done, the better should be the reading in school time.

Reading as a form of study or work.—As has been noted, a large part of the middle-grade reading program is shared by the various subject texts other than the class reader. We must teach the pupils to read the factual matter of their arithmetics, their geographies and histories, as well as poetry and imaginative prose. Briefly, the specific aims of factual reading in the grades may be set forth as follows:

1. In arithmetic

   To understand the main point of a problem; to read with accuracy the various helps, such as tables, graphs, and charts; to follow directions.

2. In geography

   To interpret a map: to read charts, graphs, and diagrams; to discriminate between important and

unimportant facts; to understand the cause and effect of tides and seasons; to appraise the importance to a locality of rainfall, nearness to the sea, and so forth.

3. In history
   To understand how geography and history are interrelated; to appreciate a great character and understand the worth of his contribution to American life; to interpret tables and charts.
4. In nature study
   To understand distinctions between the larger natural orders of animal and plant life; to appreciate the effect of geography on nature; to interpret the greater natural phenomena in the light of cause and effect; to understand the reasons for more or less obvious variations in nature; to appreciate the relation of nature to man—his habits and mode of living, for instance.
5. In the music book
   To understand the meanings of the more important technical terms and their significance in, for example, the playing of a musical instrument; to comprehend directions connected with musical compositions; to understand the printed or written rules and regulations of choral and festival activities.
6. In the newspaper
   To distinguish between the trivial and the more worth-while matter; to feel the thrill of adventure as it is daily recorded in the press—an unusual situation, an exceptional life-story, an athletic or sports event, for example; to get the point of view of a news or perhaps editorial writer; to understand advertisements; to enjoy the humor page.

7. In the common things of life

   To understand the solving of a puzzle; to read directions in a sports guidebook; to interpret a board of health bulletin; to understand police, fire, and street-cleaning department regulations; to interpret school rules and requirements; to read an automobile guidebook or road map.

8. In reference-books

   To consult such books as the dictionary for much more than the mere pronunciation of a word; to use atlas, encyclopedia, gazetteer, almanac, and other similar compilations of facts; to understand the value and use of various other helps, such as tables of contents, indices, charts, graphs, statistical tables, and so forth.

It is perhaps needless to add that not all of these aims will be set in every class and every grade. For practical purposes each school or school district will probably apportion them among the several grades of the later middle and upper years. Circumstances will govern this matter as they will so many other cases. Opportunity should be seized in all classes to instruct pupils in one or more of the ways indicated.

Reading for practice or drill exercise.—Reading for practice or drill is a legitimate kind of reading. It may be divided into separate classifications having separate aims, as follows:

1. In phonics or phonetics

   To learn the sounds of vowels and consonants, the blending of sounds in words.

2. In word study

   To become capable of independent word recognition; to find vocabulary derivation from roots; to recog-

nize prefixes and suffixes, simple allusions, and figures of speech.

3. In oral reading
   To read with proper phrasing and stress or emphasis, enunciation, pitch, tempo, modulation, expressiveness.
4. In silent reading
   To increase the span of recognition; to lower the number of eye-fixations per line; to improve the speed and accuracy of comprehension.
5. In study
   To find the main and the chief subordinate points in a paragraph; to outline the more important subdivisions of thought; to single out the essential matters; to discover the pertinent or relevant details.
6. In extensive reading
   To learn how to skim intelligently; to be able to read topically; to carry on a carefully limited study of history, geography, or some other school subject; to outline or sum up a more or less extended reading assignment.

The importance of motivation in successful reading activities.[1]—Motivation should contribute purpose, sympathetic feeling, and intelligent direction of effort to the reading period. Aside from the subtle influence of the teacher's personality, the selection of proper reading material, and the determination of desirable aims, there is the essential element of interest to "keep the lesson going."

Let us consider briefly the establishing of contacts with previously acquired knowledge and prior experience, and

[1]See pages 11 ff. and 74–77.

then suggest a few additional ways in which interest may be stimulated.

Motivation through contacts with previously acquired knowledge and prior experience.—Technically, the background of familiarity, already treated in connection with beginning reading,[1] is called the apperceptive basis. The philosopher Herbart's term, *apperception*, has been a useful one in the history of educational method during the past century. Among other things, it has brought teachers to a realizing sense of the fundamental unity of knowledge, with the pedagogically important corollary that the teaching art must make it a point to relate new to old, that is, to relate what the child knows to what we would have him know, and thus to encourage a proper association of related ideas. Learning and knowledge feed upon their kind. The more we read the better, generally speaking, are we able to read, and the more we desire to do so. The enlargement of the child's viewpoint and the enrichment of his mind through wider and wider reading opportunity will be apparent in the classroom. Ample provision must therefore be made for easy, varied, and inherently interesting material readily available on the class library table and in the school or public library.

It is the high but difficult art of the reading teacher to make the appropriate point of contact between her pupils' apperceptive basis and the new reading selection that she would have them carefully study or simply enjoy. She should strive to find, as the motivating word for her opening remarks, some natural approach to the subject in hand, but without making a pedagogic fetish of the matter. At times, the beginning had better be in manner than in word.

Teaching ability is nowhere better shown than during

[1]See pages 62–63, 104ff., and 116.

the opening minutes of a lesson. It is then that the teacher, in a sense, throws a spell over her class. It is then that the pupils are keyed up to a situation commanding their respect and engaging their best efforts. One is almost tempted to say that the success or the failure of a reading lesson will depend upon its beginning.

Following are illustrations of lesson beginnings for various middle-grade literary selections. Note the appropriateness of each to the selections to be read.

"The Wreck of the *Hesperus*"

Several years ago I was traveling south through California. Our train was due to pass a certain point along the coast at four in the morning—an hour when I didn't expect to be awake. As I was sitting at the car window, just before turning in for the night, the conductor came in and stopped a minute to answer my query about the probable time of our reaching Los Angeles. As he was leaving me he asked if I'd like to see an unusual sight. I replied that I would very much like to. "Well," he suggested, "let me wake you up at a little before four. You look out of your window—you're on the coast side, I see. Out on the rocks you'll find the *Santa Rosa.* She went down the other day during the fog. Her back's broken." Toward the hour named a porter shook the curtains in the car-aisle, and I awoke. Peering out I saw the wreck. There lay the ship on the rocks—a complete wreck, sure enough! As I leaned on my elbow, half resting, I could make out the tents of those of the crew who had been saved and I could not help thinking of a poem by Longfellow. It is called "The Wreck of the *Hesperus.*" As I remember it, the poet had seen a wrecked sailing vessel and was inspired to write how he felt about it. Let us open our readers and find the poem.

"The Star-Spangled Banner"

During the War of 1812, the British, you remember, attacked Fort McHenry in Baltimore Harbor. Through one terrifying September night an American newspaper reporter, named

Francis Scott Key, was on board a warship. He was eager and anxious to learn if the Stars and Stripes were still flying from the ramparts. All his feelings were written down the next morning, and our national anthem was born. Let us try to imagine ourselves with Mr. Key as he peered through the misty darkness. Let us think of the circumstances I have just mentioned as we read three stanzas of the poem that has become one of the most famous in our history. We shall omit the third stanza. Let us try to feel as the poet felt during that sleepless night."

"Excelsior"

How many of you have ever felt like doing something different from what you ought to do? . Let's try to think of things that sometimes call us away from our duty. . Well, I have a poem here that tells of a young man who set out to climb a mountain and, as he climbed, held a banner before him, with the single word, *Excelsior*, printed on it. *Excelsior* means *higher*. Let us see how this young lad tried to keep to the path no matter who called out to him to stop and stay. It may very well be that the poet used the mountain-climb just to give us a picture of a difficult journey or struggle which anybody else might have to make to gain a prize or reach a goal.

"How the Chipmunk Got Its Stripes,"[1] by Arthur Guiterman

Perhaps you've seen a chipmunk, perhaps you have not. You can get a pretty clear idea of what one looks like from this picture. (A picture is shown, the stripes plainly visible.) Now, what peculiar thing do you notice on the chipmunk's back? Yes, stripes, that's right. Some folks have tried to give us a more or less fanciful reason for these stripes. Let us read the two selections you will find on the papers I am going to give out. When you have finished reading them, I'd like you to tell me, first, how the two differ from each other, and, secondly, what imaginary reason for the stripes you can yourself suggest.

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[1]The poem may be found in *The Laughing Muse* (Harper). The prose selection may be read in *Elson Readers—Book IV*, pages 169–170.

"The Eagle and the Swan", by John James Audubon.

Some authors can write so beautifully and so vividly that when you read their words you are able at once to see just as they saw and to hear just as they heard. You almost feel that you are at their side looking at the same things. Let us try to see and hear and feel with the great American naturalist, John James Audubon, as he tells us of a trip he took on the Mississippi River, one day in November, long, long ago.

A few words of caution.—The teacher will do well to keep in mind the following observations:

1. Care should be exercised that introductory remarks do not take up too much time. The lesson is the pupils', after all, and should not be diverted by the teacher, however interesting she may believe her words to be.

2. A reading lesson should remain a reading lesson from beginning to end. It should not be permitted to run off into a word-study, grammar, or any other form of exercise, no matter how important such an exercise may seem to be. We recall teachers who, noting an opportunity in some introductory word or other, gradually developed a fairly ecstatic state over a split infinitive or a choice figure of speech. The lesson aim, if there had been one, was forgotten in the presence of some fresh interest. The pupils never could be quite sure how a lesson well enough begun might end. The cure for such a tendency is: first, more thorough preparation; second, the treatment of technical matters of language and style at stated periods preparatory or supplementary to the reading lesson; and, third, the practice of a wise restraint.

3. To be interesting is not necessarily to be amusing or even entertaining, as children understand the term. Hard work may be genuinely interesting, and is generally so, if effort is rewarded with compensating results. Con-

trariwise, there are forms of entertainment which may, under certain conditions, be far from interesting.

4. Interest may not be expected to be normally maintained at a high, uniform level throughout long periods. As the aviator might say, "the air is bumpy at times." So with interest. The teacher should study the whole reading period and know when it may seem to be advisable to "step in" with additional stimuli, possibly with a word, or a pointed story briefly told, or one of the illustrative materials to be considered later in this chapter.

5. Introductory remarks which to the teacher may seem pertinent may not appear so to her pupils. To appeal with equal success to the different levels of pupil appreciation with so varying a background as we know to exist, is not an easy task.

6. Not always will preliminary words be necessary. Immediate reading may be in order, especially when a selection is taken in progressive lesson-sequence. There is a time, too, when the pupil should reasonably be expected to attack a reading situation for himself as he will ordinarily have to do after schooldays are over.

Motivation through use of illustrative material.—Interest, we remember, may often be stimulated in the beginning-reading period by the use of objects and pictures. Likewise, the same means may serve a useful purpose in the reading activities of the middle grades.

Inventive mechanical genius, a revolution in our ideas about child-training, and deeper research into the phenomena of learning, not to mention broad, basic changes in educational aims, have encouraged a marked development in the use of visual[1] and auditory teaching aids. John Bunyan believed that the citadel of a man's soul

[1]Consult ANNA V. DORRIS'S *Visual Instruction in the Public Schools.*

might be more readily reached through "eye-gate" than through "ear-gate" Modern teachers use both approaches to a child's consciousness. The newspaper, the illustrated periodical, the ubiquitous sign-board, the photograph or print and the motion picture, the stereograph, and the museum exhibit, as well as the phonograph record and the radio program, all show the ever-widening utilization of illustrative ways and means. Roaming the out-of-doors in city, state, or national park, observation of the life of forest and of stream, acquaintance with botanical and zoölogical gardens and aquaria—these and other opportunities enlarge the mental vision of children of our day in multifarious ways.

We no longer teach a subject simply because of its presumed disciplinary value. A subject must win its admission to our school curricula not by reason of the difficulty a child will experience in its mastery, but rather through its proved worth in the satisfaction of one or another of life's needs. Herbert Spencer's searching question, What knowledge is of most worth? marked the end of an educational theory. When the older emphasis upon formalism and logical organization of subject matter came to be so largely omitted from the scheme of things in progressively conducted schools, there also passed not a little of the old-time thoroughness. In compensation for this loss, there has developed a vast enrichment of the curriculum, with a zealous striving to meet the pupil on his own growth level instead of on the teacher's, and an acknowledgment withal of the close relationship that should subsist between school programs and the interest of children in their own achievement.

We owe a great debt to Herbart not only for the terms *correlation* and *apperception*, already defined, but also for

the first great exposition of the modern doctrine of interest in educational procedure. Through his exposition of the three words, *correlation*, *apperception* and *interest*,[1] the philosopher laid much of the sure foundation of present-day method.

To motivate a reading lession is, after all, nothing else than to provide the stimulus for interest. Interest will vary, of course, with circumstances and situations for it derives from different sources. We do not all like the same thing in the same way at the same time, nor does this thing or that appeal to you and to me with equal force. Furthermore, while a teacher may begin her lesson with a captivating word or story, interest may flag as the period proceeds. Just as there will even be a time now and then when lack of comprehension may preclude the possibility of interest, there will also be a moment or two, once in a while, when lack of interest may mean lack of comprehension. The lesson must "carry on" to the close if it is fully to succeed.

Following are illustrations of the use of visual and auditory aids to stimulate interest in the teaching of middle-grade factual reading:

The Regular Reading Period

History.—A fourth-grade teacher has planned a series of lessons on the history of the founding of New Amsterdam by the Dutch. There are to be two reading periods—one for the reading of "The Voyage of the *Half-Moon*," and the other for "When the Dutch Ruled New Amsterdam."[2] The general trend of the subject matter of this brief reading series is obvious enough. The inherent interest for the pupils may not be so clear as mature historical interest may lead one to suppose.

[1]Re-read pages 11–15, 74–77, and 260.

[2]See the author's *Famous Men and Places in the History of New York City*.

The question will therefore be, How much besides the text will be needed to fix the events as a permanent element in the cultural possession of the pupil? How much is needed to enhance the childish interest in the subject?

In the first place, there should be pictures of the *Half-Moon* and of the shores of New York Harbor as they probably appeared to Hudson's adventurous crew. There should also be a picture of the Dutch Stadt Huys, or City Hall, of Governor Stuyvesant's house, called White Hall, and of his farm house on the Bowery. To what extent such illustrative material shall receive supplementation will depend, aside from special circumstances, upon the teacher's knowledge of the pupils' ability imaginatively to reconstruct an historical scene from the reading of an interesting story. Some children are not so capable in this respect as others seem to be.

If the class were in the City of New York it would be well to take the children on a trip to various points of pertinent historic interest. If there were a museum of the American Indian or of American history within traveling distance the pupils should by all means visit it. Otherwise, perhaps in addition, certain aids may be provided without too great difficulty. The following will be suggestive: A map of the Hudson River, particularly of its mouth and its navigable lower half; pictures of Indian life and customs, with a costume or other relic, if available; and a simply constructed scale of land prices from the Dutch times of Peter Minuit to the present.

Geography.—The United States, let us say, is the special subject, and the means of travel the special topic. The textbook is well provided with pictures and maps. What more? Perhaps a chart to show comparative distances and the relative speeds of steamboat, train, automobile, and airplane. Old prints of stage-coach days may sharpen the lesson outline. Newspaper or periodical clippings—from such a periodical as the *National Geographic Magazine*—will whet the pupils' interest. Time tables and colored maps issued from tourist, steamship, railroad, and government offices, will also prove helpful.

Nature study.—Illustrative material for nature study may outrival even that for geography. With traveling museum exhibits ready to hand, with pictures easily procurable, excur-

sions to woodland and shore not too difficult to arrange, and motion pictures to take their place if necessary, the teacher of reading should find it possible to vivify her work with comparatively little trouble.

Local matters of general interest.—In one school a teacher used her small motion picture camera to good purpose while a procession was passing along Pennsylvania Avenue, Washington. Another used her kodak camera to take pictures of new industrial centers in the South, while still another snapped historic settings in various towns visited in the West—all during a summer vacation. The classes of such teachers find group compositions of fascinating and purposeful interest. For example, pictures of historic settings are arranged in series, each forming a point of departure for reading and later for making "historic tour booklets" Since there are enough pictures for the entire class every pupil may read and write upon a topic of his own choice. The teacher distributes various pamphlets gathered on her trips. This material may be supplemented by class readers, encyclopedias, and clippings from periodicals collected over a period of months or possibly years. In other classrooms the children themselves have taken their own pictures and gathered their own supplementary reading matter.

Common things of life.—Children like to make things. We have in mind a class where the oral composition period is occasionally devoted to a discussion of ways and means of constructing a radio set, an airplane, or what not. Another class converses about bookshelves, toys, shoe boxes, coat hangers, and similarly useful things made in the school shop. Each pupil draws a diagram or picture of the thing he talks about. Underneath the diagram or picture are written directions for making the article. These illustrated compositions are then passed around the class to be read silently or, in part, orally. The situation is thus a natural one for both silent and oral reading as well as for worth-while expression.

A fruitful variation of the exercise just described is a "radio broadcast period". The pupils prepare "to go on the air" with selected topics which must first be written out, read, and criticised by their classmates. A model or picture of a microphone may be introduced.

Correlation with literature.—The teacher has planned a series of reading lessons on birds. In a class reader there are probably a number of poems at one's service. How much more vivid these poems may be made in classroom presentation through pictures or a museum exhibit has already been indicated. A phonographic record may reproduce bird-notes or give a musical rendering of a poem or two. A period with a patriotic[1] motive will be more interesting if a trip inspired by a literary selection, such as "Old Ironsides," has been made to some spot of historic note. A phonographic record of a patriotic address by some well-known statesman may also contribute much.

THE ACCESSORY PERIOD OF PRACTICE DRILL

Motivation of practice periods may be fruitful in the form of purposeful seatwork, games, puzzles, "looking for answers," tests,[2] and similiar activity exercises.

Seatwork.—There may be provision for the making of a "special edition" of an illustrated booklet of favorite poems or prose pieces for presentation as a birthday or holiday gift at home or elsewhere. Likewise in the case of an historical booklet, such as travelers find attractive at historical museums throughout the country. A current events booklet has proved its worth in not a few classrooms.

Games, puzzles, looking for answers, and similar exercises.—It may be necessary to utilize one or more of the exercises suggested in Part I of this text, with classes in the beginning grades. Circumstances, of course, will govern as in so many other cases. The following devices for interesting drill have been used by student-teachers with success but are necessarily merely suggestive:

To get the main idea of a paragraph: a building up exercise

The teacher prints successive sentences of a story, either on the blackboard or on cards or papers. The pupils read the

[1]See pages 76 and 362–363 for a word on "Paul Revere's Ride."

[2]LUELLA C. PRESSEY's tests for the *Technical Vocabularies of the Public School Subjects* will be useful.

story and assemble the sentences in proper order, filling in with a summary of each paragraph in their own words.

To increase the vocabulary

The teacher selects sentences from the reading lesson and writes them on the blackboard, underlining certain words for which the pupils are to find substitutes. Several synonyms, either words or phrases, should be required in fifth and sixth-grade classes. The class may be divided into teams, one point being allowed each side for every correct word or for the better word, as judged by vote of the class.

To improve retention

The pupils read a story and, when they have completed it, write selected sentences on papers which are exchanged for paragraph development according to the facts of the matter read.

To encourage thoroughness of comprehension in reading

The pupils read through a selection and then write out several sentences which together give the gist of the story read. Or, they may be asked to list the most important facts in a given piece. The teacher should check the results. If a speed test is also desired, a time-limit or a passage-limit may be set.[1]

To improve pupils' constructive imagination

After reading a story, the children suggest, in writing, or orally, a better ending. They might also either fill in at certain points omitted but admissible details, or complete a story begun by the teacher. Comparison should follow.

Lesson reports indicating the use and abuse of illustrative material

Fourth Year

It was a bright, sunny morning. The class had just returned from the assembly where they had been complimented for good marching. The hour could not have been later than ten. The school was in a neighborhood not blessed with wealth.

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[1]See page 222.

As the visiting supervisor entered, alertness seemed evident on most faces. All were ready for whatever was in store. The teacher in training had her twenty-five minute lesson plan apparently well thought out. A quick glance at the desk also indicated careful preparation. There were assembled a number of articles of apparel, with a picture or two. Upon the front wall hung a map of the two hemispheres.

"Now, children," began the young teacher, "we are going to read about a brave little boy who lived long ago in Holland. Here is where Holland is." An index finger soon covered the place the Dutch occupy on the map. "Holland, you remember, is the country from which the early settlers of New York came three hundred years ago. Let us open our books to page—, and read the story called 'The Leak in the Dyke'."

A busy but subdued hunt for readers resulted in a fine showing of neatly covered books. In a few seconds every child had the place and was "sitting tall", all ready for an enjoyable lesson. The teacher's introductory remarks would naturally whet one's interest. Expectancy was on tip-toe.

"Before we begin, children," remarked Miss A., "I wish to show you some things I have brought to school. They are the clothes that little Dutch boys and girls wear. Now, George, come here a moment." George came forward promptly to serve as a model upon whom the suit was loosely hung by way of illustration. Minnie was then called to the desk to serve as a model for a little girl's apparel. A running comment accompanied this exhibition. Most of the pupils seemed interested enough, though the center of attention had been shifted. Books were in many cases soon closed, one fell to the floor, two or three quietly disappeared into the desks whence they had come.

Thus fifteen minutes passed.

1. What two kinds of illustration did the teacher provide? 2. What can you say of each of these from the standpoint of interpretative value? 3. What effect was noted upon (a) discipline and (b) reading itself? 4. What great omission in illustrative material do you note? How might the work have been improved?

6. What constructive criticism can you offer upon the teacher's preparation?

Fifth Year

One of the brightest of fifth-year classes was reading the story of Benjamin Franklin with evident interest. A skillful young teacher was conducting the lesson. Every word was clearly enunciated. No slurring speech was tolerated. Though no one seemed transfixed by the content, interest was evident. At any rate, no one fell asleep.

The visitor to that room rather enjoyed the experience. His seat was near the window. As he sat there a few local historic spots flashed up in memory. Perhaps it was the recollection of having read the bronze tablet at 83 Pearl Street, not far away, that helped him appreciate the story of Franklin's youth. On that tablet one reads of William Bradford, first public printer of old New York. Was it not he to whom young Benjamin went for a job? Then, the recollection of a grave in Trinity Churchyard—the resting place of the same old printer—also but a short distance away, helped vivify the story as the children read it. Franklin's statue in Park Row, a quarter of a mile northwest of the school, was likewise clear in mind.

All too quickly, the scene changed, following not a word from pupil or teacher about these things of local interest. The class was now mentally in Philadelphia. Young Benjamin's beginning days in the City of Brotherly Love were well described, and the children read paragraph after paragraph with good expression. Much was made of his arrival, and properly so. Who does not recall the thrill upon first reading of the youthful runaway's stroll along strange streets and, especially, of the coyish look toward a certain famous doorway?

And yet, something was lacking. An opportunity had been missed. The visitor felt certain that there would be no aftermath of interest to urge those pupils to read more.

1. What opportunity was neglected in the conduct of this reading lesson? 2. What constructive criticism can you offer upon the general procedure?

Sixth Year

The sixth-year class was ready for the reading lesson. The desks had been finally cleared of pencils, paper, scissors, paste, and all the other odds and ends of the previous lesson in construction work. The floor, too, had been made respectable once more. All the children were at last quiet, for the reading period was taken very seriously in this teacher's classroom.

"Now, children, we are going to learn about Arbor Day." Thus began the young student-teacher. Everybody seemed eager enough. So far, the lesson was progressing pretty well.

"Arbor Day is a day set apart to make us think of trees and nature, generally. There are so many kinds of trees, you know, that it would be difficult to name all of them." A simulated sigh of pedagogic regret was noticeable.

Nobody dissenting from this opinion, and everybody sympathetic enough, Miss A. continued: "We should all try to keep the trees and not let anybody cut one down unless for a very good reason. To observe this day we are going to read a lovely little poem called, 'Woodman, Spare That Tree!' It was written many years ago by a kind-hearted gentleman named George P. Morris, who was a newspaper man. He died in New York. Although he wrote many poems, his best known one is the poem we are about to read. It was inspired by a real incident. It must be wonderful to be able to write a poem that all the world will remember. Don't you think so?" All agreed, two or three smiling their approval.

After a few minutes more spent upon the author's life and career the young teacher reached the poem itself and informed her pupils that she would make it still clearer by dramatizing it for them.

"Woodman, spare that tree!" Miss A. began, hopefully, with the forefinger of her left hand upraised to symbolize the tree. With the index finger of her right hand, she pointed after the manner of a person in the living presence of the original woodman himself.

"Touch not a single bough," the teacher read on, moving her right index finger to bear out the dramatic effect of a bough.

The children sat speechless. Born actors themselves they were evidently experiencing a thrill of vicarious self-activity.

"In youth it sheltered me," ran the third line. A heartfelt gesture covered the tip of the upturned left-hand finger, in momentary and loving umbrella-fashion.

Then, the climax! "And I'll protect it now!" The closing in of the pedagogic right hand brought the drama to a fittingly touching end.

As it was time for another lesson—in cooking, as it happened—the children were told to put away their books.

1. What was the interpretative value of this dramatization? 2. What is your most favorable criticism of the lesson? 3. What is your most unfavorable criticism?

Review.—A middle-grade class will probably present many of the reading difficulties encountered by teachers in the earlier grades. The problem will, therefore, be twofold: to prepare pupils for advance work in wide reading and to afford them adequate practice in the elements of reading. Although various causes, over which the school may not have control, have tended to retard progress, the teacher should not be discouraged. She should rather be led to greater effort in careful testing, skillful preparation, and adjustment of means to ends. Patience and sympathy as well as resourcefulness and zeal will contribute much to the solution of almost any problem.

Teacher preparation and pupil preparation are both necessary before the reading period begins. Proper selection of suitable material is most essential. Reading aims should be not only general but also definite and specific for the particular lesson in mind. Recreatory and work-type lessons must be considered, while regularly-planned, well-integrated practice-drill periods will like-

wise be in order. Interest must be secured and maintained throughout.

Due account must be taken of the apperceptive basis that has been laid in prior learning through books and experience. There is need of a sensible use of illustrative material, of class rivalry, of a sense of mystery and imagination, and of other appeals.

STUDY PROBLEMS

A. Discussion Topics

1. "Every effort should be made to promote a love of books and to foster and guide the reading habit."—page 12, *Course of Study and Syllabus in Literature*, Board of Education, The City of New York. To what extent will a proper selection of reading material assist?

2. "The appreciation of good literature is still the aim in both oral and silent reading in the middle grades." To what extent is this only partly true?

3. "Extensive silent reading in class and out of class is also a goal in the middle years."

4. "Let us consider the children themselves in the middle grades. They will determine much of our reading method." How does this thought affect the points made in this chapter?

5. A publishing house[1] speaks of its reading series as follows:

> In the choice of material for *The Study Readers*, every selection is justified on at least two counts: 1. It has some definite appeal to children. 2. It has a definite informational or thought content. Another valuable quality noticeable in a large proportion of the selections is their relation to subjects of vital interest in the real world of today. Illustrations of this tendency include selections on fire prevention, health habits, safety rules, good roads, ways of getting along with other boys and girls, etc.

Discuss the merits of these statements in the light of what you have read in this and the preceding chapters.

[1]Charles E. Merrill Company. Quotation by courtesy of publishers.

6. "The teacher began her lesson by referring to a trip the pupils had made the week before. She asked the children whether they remembered the zebras. I think this was good motivation since the children had actually seen that animal. It made use of their apperceptive basis. The teacher asked for a description of a zebra and then 'Why do you think the zebra has stripes?' This led to the reading of the story ('Tale the Zebras Tell') in order to solve the problem."—*A student-teacher's report.*

7. The following paragraphs were written by student-teachers:

a. In preparation the teacher should have thoroughly analyzed the selection to be given. She should be ready to tell something of the author's life if it is pertinent to the selection. She should always, however, have some incident related to the story to begin the lesson with. In the intermediate grades, phonetic and word drills can be given in the introduction.

b. I have never anticipated real difficulties in the preparation of my lessons. I felt that when the child came upon a difficulty he would then feel the motive for mastering it. Lists of words out of the text have no real meaning for the child.

c. The teacher should be prepared; she should anticipate all difficulties in the selection. She should have a purpose in view. The teacher should provide much of the background of familiarity for the pupils. She should prepare them for the problem.

8. "It is better to have no illustrative material than to have the wrong kind."

9. A student-teacher writes as follows:

In a lesson given by Miss —— on the poem, "O Captain! My Captain!" she used a picture of Lincoln's head about $3\frac{1}{2}$ feet high and $1\frac{1}{2}$ feet wide. This, of course, could be seen by every one, but in addition to this she had several that were smaller, which she had placed in different parts of the room so that all had some picture near by. They

proceeded to discuss the character of Lincoln by studying his picture.

To what extent do you approve of this use of illustrative material? What better have you to suggest?

B. Group Research Topics

1. Reading aims and objectives for the middle years as found in the manuals of several reading systems. A chart may be prepared for graphic presentation.

2. A study of reading manuals to discover how several systems plan to realize the essential aims and objectives of the middle grades. The following points, among others, should be considered: (a) choice of materials, (b) study helps, and (c) pedagogic helps for teachers.

3. A summary of statements in the *Twenty-Fourth Yearbook*, as follows: "Wide Reading to Extend and Enrich Experience and Cultivate Important Reading Attitudes, Habits, and Tastes," pages 55–64; "Period of Enriched Experience," pages 108–122; "The Enjoyment of Literature in Primary Grades," pages 151–153.

4. A study of several fourth-grade elementary-school classes of children to determine reasons for lack of greater progress. Results should be tabulated before presentation.

5. A chart of devices which experienced teachers have found helpful in meeting the twofold problem of fourth-grade teaching as explained in this chapter.

6. A reported visit to public libraries with well-prepared notes upon their available resources in children's literature. The three grade-groups should receive attention, but especial consideration should be given the material for middle-grade use. Indication should also be made of seasonal selections and of selections suited to slow, rapid, and normal readers. Perhaps the report could be in the form of a chart.

7. The careful preparation of a table of contents for a fourth-, fifth-, or sixth-grade reader to meet the needs of pupils for additional interesting matter in geography, history, or other subject taught.

8. The study of several paragraphs on pages 139–140 of Leta S. Hollingworth's *Gifted Children: Their Nature and*

Nurture. Following this study a special textbook may be prepared with some such title as "Readings for the Wide-Awake." Selections for this reader may be made from a number of reading systems. A typewritten copy should be presented to the class library for perusal by future students.

9. A listing of all poems, or prose selections, in a course of study in children's literature for the middle years (or for any one of them). The material should be arranged in three groupings: one, those pieces especially suited to low I. Q.'s; another, to middle I. Q's; and a third, to high I. Q's. The following should be indicated: visual and auditory aids including phonographic records (with names of companies and their addresses), reproductions of famous paintings (with names of companies and their addresses).

10. A study of selections to be found in a course of study, suitable for assembly programs in spring, autumn, and winter.

11. A report upon the following (for middle-grade reading needs): TERMAN and LIMA'S *Children's Reading;* JORDAN'S *Children's Interest in Reading;* LEONARD'S *Essential Principles of Teaching Literature and Reading in the Intermediate Grades and High School*—Appendix I, pages 339–369, and Appendix II, pages 370–437; UHL'S *The Materials of Reading;* HUBER, BRUNER, and CURRY'S *Children's Interests in Poetry.* Charts for exhibition and discussion should be prepared.

12. A report upon WILSONS' *The Motivation of School Work,* Chapter I, "The Meaning of Motivation"; Chapter III, "The Psychological Basis of Motivation"; Chapter IV, "The Origin and Sources of Motives"; Chapter V, "The Motivation of Reading."

C. INDIVIDUAL RESEARCH TOPICS

1. A report upon the reading career of a particular child, with a tabulated presentation of his reading difficulties and their probable causes, with suggested remedies.

2. A student-teacher makes this statement: "I have been taught that the illustrative material chosen for a lesson must be suitable for the children and the lesson, and it must satisfy the needs of the aim." A number of authorities may be cited for such a student-teacher's further reading.

3. A review of "Reading as a Leisure Occupation", Chapter 18, in Franklin Bobbitt's *The Curriculum.*

4. A reading of Parker's *A History of Modern Elementary Education,* pages 136–148, followed by a report upon his treatment of the development of object teaching.

5. A study of the possibilities of pupil participation in the collection of illustrative material for the selections of a middle-grade reader. Visual and auditory aids should be included.

6. A study of the suitability of illustrations in the readers of any reading system. The particular point to consider is the intimate connection between reading text and picture, map or diagram.

7. "Today we try to arouse in the child a desire to read, and we have readers which contain stories admirably suited to this end." A report may be prepared upon several readers in wide current use.

8. Rank the following aims in order, the most specific first and so on down to the least specific:

a. To have the children pronounce the words of the poem correctly and phrase properly.
b. To help the children develop careful habits of observation through oral reading of a story.
c. To have the children read silently and test their comprehension of the story, "A Rainy Day Game."
d. To have the children read silently and select the essential thought of the story, "Perseverance Wins."
e. To teach a new story; to teach good silent reading habits; to develop dramatic ability; to increase rate of reading.
f. To make children efficient oral readers by inculcating right habits, such as no lip movement, rapid reading, etc. The immediate aim was to have children find out how the story got its title and whether or not it was suitable for dramatization.
g. To give a class a full appreciation of the flowers of Japan from the reading of the work.
h. To have the pupils pick out the moral of the story.
i. To get the thought from the printed page.

j. To develop in the children independent silent reading, to have them read the story with comprehension, and to become interested in what has its origin in real life.

9. The following are suggested aims and illustrative materials for the poems named. Rank these in the order of their suitability. A new list of the student's own recommendation may be prepared and arranged in a parallel column.

POEM	AIM	ILLUSTRATIVE MATERIAL
"To the Dandelion" —J. R. Lowell	To have the children see and appreciate the beauty in common things	Copy of poem for each child; picture of a whole field of dandelions for the pupils to get the effect of the coloring; and some real dandelions.
"The Children's Hour"— H. W. Longfellow	To have children appreciate the great love that Longfellow had for his children	The poem. The life of Longfellow in relation to his children.
"Aladdin" —J. R. Lowell	1) To show that wealth does not always mean happiness. 2) To encourage ideals. 3) To apply proverb, "All is not gold that glitters."	Book containing poem. Recall story of Aladdin.
"Opportunity" —E. R. Sill	To have the children appreciate the idea that will and courage help one greatly.	The poem. A picture of knights in battle, showing armor and banners.

10. From the following fourth-year motivating remarks select the five you regard as probably best calculated to interest pupils, and be prepared to defend your selections in class by indicating the specific reasons for your choice:

a. "Read enough of the story orally to make the pupils eager to finish."
b. "We shall see how quickly we can read now, and understand all of the story to see if it can be acted out."
c. "Children, today I am going to let you read yourselves, and then you must be able to tell me what you have read."
d. Get an idea of how many pupils have heard of great painters. Talk along this line. Present a picture to show one painter's work.
e. Write these words on board, for pronunciation, and require meaning through sentences: *conquer*, *traitor*, *Senate*, *governed*, *imagine*.
f. "Today, we are going to find out which pupils read most quickly and, at the same time, understand what they read."
g. The teacher introduced her local geography reading lesson by telling the pupils what a wonderful city they lived in and that they should be proud of it.
h. "How many children have read fairy tales? Today we are going to read one together."
i. Teacher read a few paragraphs aloud. Children were then asked to finish the story to find out how the matter ended.
j. "Here is a story about a grandmother who taught her granddaughter how to sew. I wonder what kind of teacher and what kind of pupil they were!"

11. A report upon CHUBB's *The Teaching of English*, Chapter XVIII, "Reading in the Intermediate Grades: General Considerations."

D. THEME ASSIGNMENTS

1. A reading of PARKER's *General Methods of Teaching in Elementary Schools*, Chapter VIII, "Putting Pupils in a Favorable Frame of Mind" How his thought appears in the light of one's own experience as a learner.

2. How a teacher may utilize her neighborhood for illustrative material.

3. What department stores and other commercial and industrial establishments may contribute to the illustration and vivifying of classroom reading.

4. Ways and means of encouraging children to collect illustrative material.

5. How a class library and "art gallery" may be built up to develop the interest of a class in reading.

6. The efforts of a progressive teacher of poetry to provide efficient motivation for a class of boys.

7. A written discussion of the merits of each of the following statements made by student-teachers:

a. In motivating a lesson we should appeal to a child's instinctive interests for the most part.

b. In a fifth-year class, I taught the poem, "Columbus", on October 11. Before studying the poem in detail, I reviewed with the children the early life and hardships that Columbus encountered in getting out his ships. When we came to reading the poem I found the children quite enthusiastic about it.

c. Usually, the child has an idea that the children read in order that the teacher may rate their abilities. One time my class was to have an assembly program in auditorium. It was considered a great honor to read or recite on the day the program was given. I told them that I was looking for somebody to read on that day. Needless to say, everybody read with expression, I had good attention, and an atmosphere of interest prevailed in the room.

d. I have found that children are not able to keep pace with the reader if they have the same book. They will either be ahead of him or will be slower. As a result the lesson drags and bores both children and teacher. On the other hand, when I spent Friday afternoon reading from one of our home library books the situation changed. The reader read intelligently, with feeling, and gave his point of view. The listeners were wide awake, keyed up to the situation, and gave free attention. In other words, motivate by a felt need.

e. In teaching the poem, "The Builders", the teacher had the children discuss what they meant by a builder, and brought them gradually from the concrete to the abstract meaning of the word. She then asked the children if they wanted to know what Longfellow thought a builder was, and they were intensely interested in knowing. I believe the teacher furnished the intellectual and the emotional aspects of the preparation. I do not think any formal preparation was needed.

8. A supervisor enters a fifth-year classroom to observe a reading lesson but discovers that the teacher has omitted any motivating preliminary remarks. How may the teacher justify her procedure?

9. A student teacher writes as follows:

> Illustrative material should be suitable for the poem which you are going to teach. All illustrative material should be in hand as soon as the lesson starts. This prevents confusion and an interruption of the lesson. See that the picture that you have shows what you want known in the poem. For instance, in teaching the poem, "When the Flag Goes By," I had a picture of the flag only because the poem spoke about our flag and how we should feel towards it.

Justify this opinion and illustrate with other reading selections on the same general theme.

10. Following is a student-teacher's vivid lesson-report.

a. Write out a list of aims in reading lessons suited to such a class as this student describes.

b. Write a critical estimate of *the use made of illustrative material.* In what respects would it have differed according to conditions?

c. Make a list of selections in any reader or readers you may have at hand, which would be suitable for this class.

> My first five weeks of pupil-teaching were spent entirely in a 4A girls' class. The most difficult problem I had to meet was the teaching of reading. Most of the forty-nine children in the class were foreigners. About fifty per cent

of their parents were illiterate and the rest very poorly educated. They lived amongst the most squalid conditions I have ever seen. Four children had library cards, the rest relied for literary refreshment on the "funny sheets" of the daily newspapers. Their readers were the same as the one I had used in my grammar school days, but the condition of the books was scandalous. Only the very fortunate could boast a book with all the pages in it. Their choice of language was in most cases awful! Every other word in a reading lesson was new to the children. The pronunciation left lots of room for improvement. Before the first few days were over I decided that there would have to be some hard work done in reading and that I would do all I could to bring their work up to standard.

My first lesson was "The Judge and the Beetle". The story, in substance, tells of a judge who was imprisoned in a tower. He sends a message to his wife and tells her to smear the head of a beetle with butter and to tie a silken thread around its body. The odor of the butter above his head will urge it upward. When it reaches the top of the tower the judge will seize it and take the thread from its body. Then on the end of the thread his wife must attach some twine and at the end of the twine some rope. The judge will pull these up and then by means of the rope escape. His wife does this and he gains his freedom.

In order to make the lesson extremely interesting I brought quantities of illustrative material. Among these were four or five pictures of towers, a toy beetle, pieces of thread, twine, and rope. I let them first read the story. At the part where the head of the beetle was smeared, I let a child smear the toy beetle with chalk, another tied the thread around it, etc. Then I let them dramatize the story. After that I assigned to pupils correlating topics in the library. Many children in this way were induced to take out library cards as I gave extra marks for research work.

You have no idea what an improvement this plan effected. I tried it in every lesson. I also had continuous drills in phonics. At the end of my five weeks I could not

help but be proud of the startling change for the better in the reading of my 4A class.

11. Criticize the following instances of reported use of illustrative material. Consider the plus and the minus values of such use, as indicated in the present chapter. State under what conditions each of these cases might serve, if at all. Remember that the *child* is the important factor in this matter of the use of illustrative material.

a. The reader had vivid and colorful pictures illustrating the story. I believe the story ("How Andy Helped Capture the Red-coats") was sufficiently illustrated.
b. Blackboard and pictures in readers.
c. Word and phrase chart. Picture in text (in color). (Poem: "September", in *Horace Mann Third Reader*).
d. Consisted of questions on the blackboard and the game played at the end of the lesson, which was appropriate for this lesson (on "A Rainy Day Game").
e. There was no illustrative material. The textbooks did not contain pictures. A picture or two might have been introduced quite effectively, especially to bring out correct conception of "barge", "pilot house", "megaphone", etc. A map showing location of Lake Huron, the setting of the story, might also have been shown.
f. There was no illustrative material for the story, "Japan—A Fairyland of Flowers". The teacher might easily have had a few flowers. She might have bought a few chrysanthemums or wistaria and shown them to the class. If she could not have gotten the real thing she could have gotten plenty of pictures of chrysanthemums, wistaria, cherry blossoms, and plum blossoms, which would have interested the class. One good point which the teacher did make, however, was to suggest that the children look in at the florist's shop and ask to see some of the flowers.
g. The illustrative material was adequate. The teacher had flash cards of difficult words in the lesson. She also utilized the pictures of characters that were in the book.

12. Given a fifth-year class, slow progress pupils (or normal or rapid), congested city neighborhood, which five poems would you choose for a class reading program in celebration of any one of our national holidays? Briefly indicate reasons for your selection, your specific aim in each case, the visual or auditory aids you would employ in teaching the poems and, later, in having them presented during the class program period.

13. A supervisor learns that few of the pupils seem to be availing themselves of the privileges of a public library near your school. State at least three possible reasons for this neglect of opportunity.

14. Select five prose stories suitable for use in the sixth year. Indicate the specific aim of the teacher in teaching each of these selections, and state how illustrative material might be profitably employed.

15. A résumé of "The Teacher's Literary Equipment", Chapter II, pages 51–74, in LEONARD'S *Essential Principles of Teaching Literature and Reading in the Intermediate Grades and the High School.*

16. A résumé of "Types of Excellent Literature within Children's Interests", Chapter IV, pages 101–137, *ibid.*

17. A résumé of "The Selection of Literary Materials", in Chapter VI, pages 143–146, and in Chapter VII, pages 161–172, 211–218, of the *Twenty-Fourth Yearbook.*

18. An experienced teacher contributes her views upon illustrations:

> Pictures adorn charts and books. But the adornment is but an incident. The real function of pictures is to be a part of the reading material and method. Pictures give the pick of a story; they attract and hold the child's attention; they arouse his interest and enthusiasm; they stimulate and direct his thought. Let a child abandon himself to a picture; enjoy it with him; direct his observation and thought by questions. All this picture study is a preparation for an appreciation of the text. It helps expression.

Analyze this opinion, and, if you are in agreement, cite instances of applications in your own reading either as a child or as an adult.

19. A teacher of long experience once made this statement:

> Dramatization, like pictures, is a part of the material and method of reading. Dramatizing prepares a child to read appreciatively. Instead of just *thinking* pictures, children here make the ideas live. It is realistic reading because, instead of thinking about the actors in the story, the children become the actors; instead of reading what the actors do, the children do the things themselves. Dramatizing works in two ways: it prepares a child to read a story with expression; and, on the other hand, having read a story feelingly, the children can dramatize it.

Analyze this statement. If you agree, cite applications in your own reading life.

20. How a teacher of little experience may meet the problem of retarded reading ability in fifth-grade pupils.

CHAPTER XII

TEACHING CHILDREN TO READ ORALLY WITH UNDERSTANDING AND FEELING

The main points of this chapter.—Despite the large place that silent reading has come to occupy in modern classroom procedure, oral reading has not yielded its place where and when it properly enters as a useful form of behavior. The methodology of oral reading has naturally somewhat changed as a result of scientific investigation. The present status of oral reading method is the special subject of this chapter. The main points are as follows:

1. The time and place of oral reading.
2. Pleasure and study not necessarily antithetic terms.
3. The effective conclusion.
4. The assignment.

The time and place of oral reading.—Oral reading finds its proper time and place when there is an audience situation, where the selection itself has social value, and when it seems desirable to afford further practice opportunity for directed expression along the best lines of established language folkways.

There will be times in the classroom, as in life outside of the classroom, when it may not be convenient to read aloud even if there is distinct social value in the matter to be read. A library or a study room, at school, at home, or elsewhere, will normally not permit of oral rendition,

either in reading or in loud speaking. Where conditions are right, however, it would be a pity to keep a good story to oneself, to chuckle in silence over a bit of humor, to thrill inwardly in the presence of a rare piece of description or narrative, and not to give vent to spontaneous expression. To share such experiences is but natural, and the activity from a sheer expressional standpoint may be invaluable. Perhaps, we of the present day have not been cultivating the oral reading art as we should have being doing.

Granting the time allotment, the prevailing classroom conditions, the reading purpose, and the material used, the teacher of the fourth, fifth, or sixth grade will do well to plan for much oral reading. The high cultural experience of good oral reading of literature must not be lost sight of. Technically speaking, as has been explained,[1] silent reading will necessarily underly all oral reading; but it may sometimes be secondary to oral reading as a lesson objective.

Pleasure and study not necessarily antithetic terms.— That one may enjoy study needs no proof. If the oral reading lesson is carefully planned and intelligently presented, there is no reason why pleasure and study should not together play their important rôles. No fundamental antithesis subsists between these two forms of reading behavior. Any attitude to the contrary on the pupils' part should be discouraged.

Both pleasure and study may be integral aspects of the same reading lesson. The following stenographically reported oral reading of Wordsworth's "The Daffodils" will illustrate this. Here it will be seen that sixth-grade pupils can be interested and led to take pleasure in the study

[1]See page 56.

of a beautiful piece of poetry under the skillful guidance of an experienced teacher, alert and sympathetic. The pupils were of normal intelligence, city-bred, and of mixed cultural background.[1] It was a Friday morning, between ten and ten forty-five o'clock. As part follows part, the student should note the use of illustrative material, the wise motivation, the maintenance of a well-thought-out aim, and the general fulfilment of one or more of the larger reading purposes in the middle years. The teacher's own personal reaction of delight, even after a probable re-reading a score or more of times, will be evident throughout. The group of ten girls and eight boys were seated on the assembly-hall platform before a class of teachers in training. On a small table stood a vase filled with daffodils.

PART I

TEACHER: [*Pointing to a vase of daffodils.*] What are these lovely things we have here?

PUPILS: Daffodils.

TEACHER: Yes, daffodils.

PUPILS: They're very pretty little things. I think they brighten up the room, Miss S.

MISS S: Yes, that is right, they do.

PUPIL: They look like dainty little things, drooping their heads.

MISS S.: Yes. What other thought comes to you as you look at them?

PUPIL: They make me think of bells, and they seem to ring.

MISS S: What would they say? Bells may say something, you know.

PUPILS: "Spring is here."

MISS S: I wonder what other thought they bring to you.

PUPIL: They make me think of "A Laughing Chorus".

[1]For characteristics of children in a large city, the student should consult W. S. GRAY's *Survey of the St. Louis Public Schools*, especially Chapter XII on "Reading".

MISS S: Made you think of the poem we studied, did they? Were daffodils mentioned in "The Laughing Chorus"?

PUPILS: They were not mentioned but they were talked about. . "From the millions of flowers under the ground —yes, millions, beginning to grow."

MISS S: Do you remember any other lines?

PUPIL: "Oh, such a commotion under the ground!"

MISS S: Well, what made that commotion?

PUPIL: When March called, "Ho, there! ho!"

MISS S: Yes, that is true. Do you remember what flowers were mentioned?

PUPILS: "I'll promise my blossoms", the crocus said
"When I hear the bluebirds sing".

MISS S: Well, we did get the blossoms, didn't we? Are there any more thoughts coming? . . . Did you ever see these growing? [*Pupils' heads say,* "No".]

MISS S: Never in your life?

PUPIL: In the florist's window.

MISS S: Ah! Did you ever see them growing wild by hundreds and thousands? [*Pupils' heads answer in the negative.*]

MISS S: No one ever did. . . Don't you wish you had? [*Pupils' heads answer in the affirmative.*]

PUPIL: It must look pretty with a whole field of daffodils.

MISS S: I had a letter from a friend—just last night, and this is what she wrote: "Down here in South Carolina, every one plants daffodils so there are great yellow patches in most of the gardens, and I keep thinking of Wordsworth's poem. Those are smaller blossoms than we have and are very fragrant." . How many have ever heard the name of William Wordsworth before? . . What have you heard about him?

PUPIL: He was an English poet.

MISS S: Would you like to know something about him? Where he lived? What he said? I know he had beautiful thoughts about these [*pointing to the daffodils*]. I thought you would like to read a little about him in this book. Which of you will come up and read this? Mary!

Miss S. directs the pupils, excepting Mary, to turn to page 29.

MISS S: I want you to read only the fine print at the top. I am going to have you tell us what it says, and Mary will tell

us what she reads out of that big book. You have very little to read. Mary has a good deal to read. Do you think you can do it all and remember some of it? Look up at me when you finish. . . .

MISS S: What do you know now about William Wordsworth?

PUPIL: I found that he and two other men were known as the Lake Poets.

MISS S: I wonder why they were called the "Lake Poets"? Can you guess?

PUPILS: They might have written about things that were along the lakes. . They lived in a part of England that was so full of lakes and hills that it was called the "Lake Country". . . They are known all over as the "Lake Poets" because of living in that country so full of lakes.

MISS S: I have some pictures of that country. Would you like to see them? There is one of the lakes that Wordsworth lived near. We'll excuse Mary for a moment. There is another. See the hills in the distance! Wordsworth used to walk over those hills. . People all around knew him well.

PUPIL: No wonder he could write such beautiful poems since he lived in such a beautiful setting.

MISS S: Here is another place where he lived quite a number of years. He would walk for miles over the hills and think nothing of it. Every morning—almost—he took a long walk. He traveled a great deal, too; and loved—what do you suppose?

PUPIL: Loved flowers and loved birds and loved all natural things almost more than anything.

MISS S: Loved them, especially. I will show you one or two more pictures.

PUPIL: No wonder he could write poetry.

MISS S: Oh, a great many people came to see him in that house. I will show it to you in the reflectoscope later. There is a house that he lived in . Another house.

PUPILS: How many beautiful trees and shrubbery. Doesn't it look pretty? That is real country.

MISS S: I will show you the collection up-stairs[1] in our own

[1]As has been said, this demonstration was given on the assembly-room platform "downstairs", before a large class of student-teachers.

room. Would you like to hear the poem now? Turn to page 180. Shall I read it through for you? We'll talk about it afterwards. Now see how many ideas you can gather from the poem. [*Reads aloud.*]

PART II

MISS S: Read the poem "The Daffodils" to yourselves.

PART III

MISS S: I doubt if we could have said it as well, no matter what thoughts came to us. Is there any question you want to ask before we talk about it?

PUPIL: Miss S., the poem tells that he went on long walks.

MISS S: First, is there any question? What is it, Margaret? [*Margaret seems in doubt about the meaning of the word* pensive.] I think I know what's troubling Margaret. Look at the phrase, "in vacant or in *pensive* mood".

PUPILS: I think it means "a cranky mood". He didn't just feel all right.

MISS S: I don't think so, particularly. He was thinking, and *pensive* means just *thinking*. A vacant mood means he was not thinking very much. Maybe he was a little bit sad, but not cranky. A number of questions, now! Quickly, please.

PUPIL: I want to know what *jocund* means.

MISS S: I am glad to call your attention to that word. It is introduced in a number of other pœms that we are going to read, this next week or so, and the poet uses that word quite often—*jocund*.

PUPIL: Maybe it means *jolly*.

MISS S: Just what it means—jolly or merry, or happy. Turn back to the beginning. That is, to Wordsworth himself.

MISS S: Now, how is he feeling this day?

PUPILS: I think his friend Southey wasn't with him. He felt lonely.

MISS S: He certainly did. It made him think of something else that was all alone. Who can tell me?

PUPIL: The cloud.

MISS S: What does he say about the cloud? You tell us, Anna.

PUPIL: "I wandered lonely as a cloud
That floats on high o'er vales and hills."

MISS S: In my own book of Wordsworth a picture shows just that part. Here it is, and naturally enough it gives just these lines. See the cloud?

MISS S: [*displaying picture*] See that little cloud up there! And here is the lake and here are the daffodils. Think of them in large numbers. . Who will tell us what it says?

PUPIL: "When all at once I saw a crowd,
A host of golden daffodils."

MISS S: These on the table really did grow in a garden up in New Rochelle. They just came in this morning. One isn't even out yet . I like that one. Let us see in how many ways he tells us about the number.

PUPIL: "A host of golden daffodils!"

MISS S: Yes, he says it another way.

PUPIL: "Ten thousand saw I at a glance."

MISS S: Another expression.

PUPIL: "I saw a crowd—a host."

MISS S: What lines tell where they were?

PUPIL: "Beside the lake, beneath the trees."

MISS S: People who go over to England in the spring see them growing around that very lake in thousands! We have to wait till April. . What were they doing?

PUPIL: They were tossing their heads.

MISS S: That gives me an idea of what kind of day it was. . What do you think, Alice?

ALICE: Bright sunshiny day with a little breeze—quite a little breeze—"Fluttering and dancing in the breeze."

MISS S: What other expression tells how many were there? I think Wordsworrh must have thought, "How many, many daffodils!" Again, he speaks about something.

PUPIL: "Continuous as the stars that shine."

MISS S: Finish the next line. It gives you the whole idea.

PUPIL: "Continuous as the stars that shine
And twinkle on the milky way!"

MISS S: Do you know what the "milky way" is?

PUPILS: Yes, it is a white streak in the heavens.

Looks like a path. It's much brighter than the rest of the sky!

MISS S: How many really and truly have seen it? [*Only a few raise hands.*] In the summertime, if it's clear, look up in the middle of the sky some night. It seems to be like a pathway—like a road in the sky. The stars seem very much closer together than they are in the rest of the sky. "Continuous as the stars that shine and twinkle on the milky way"

MISS S: They stretch how—Doris?

DORIS: "In never-ending line."

MISS S: Where?

DORIS: "Along the margin of the bay."

PUPILS: I think it must have been more than a little breeze. . . I think it was a breezy March day.

MISS S: Why do you think so?

PUPIL: I think so because the waves were dancing also.

MISS S: Read what Wordsworth said.

PUPIL: "The waves beside them danced but they outdid the sparkling waves in glee."

PUPIL: The wavelets were dancing in the sun, and the daffodils were doing even more.

MISS S: He begins to feel cheered up. He was feeling how, when he started out on that walk?

PUPIL: "As lonely as a cloud."

MISS S: How does he feel now?

PUPIL: He was feeling very well and so he says: "A poet could not but be gay, in such a jocund company."

MISS S: I want Frieda to read the next two lines.

FRIEDA: "I gazed—and gazed—but little thought
What wealth the show to me had brought."

PUPILS: I think as he gazed he was lonesome. . The picture always came before him of that day, and he sees the daffodils. He tells it right in the next stanza.

PUPIL: "And then my heart with pleasure fills,
And dances with the daffodils."

PUPIL: "They flash upon that inward eye
Which is the bliss of solitude."

MISS S: These lines are pretty hard! They *flash!* What flash?

PUPIL: Daffodils.

MISS S: "They flash upon that inward eye which is the bliss of solitude." Now, what does he mean? Can you explain?

PUPIL: Solitude means lonesome and tired.

MISS S: Explain a little further.

PUPIL: I think that as he sees the picture he is all in solitude. . He doesn't think of anything. His mind is just dreary, and he looks at the pictures of daffodils, remembers; and it makes him feel very different.

MISS S: Of course, it means the pictures are in his mind. . And then how does he feel?

PUPIL: "And then my heart with pleasure fills,
And dances with the daffodils!"

MISS S: I wonder if our hearts would dance with joy if we saw them growing—"Ten thousand at a glance!" That is very beautiful, don't you think so? Who is ready to read it, right straight through? Slowly, as slowly as can be, so we will really have a chance to think. . Now, see how many thoughts will come to you as Gladys reads.

PART IV

PUPIL: "When all at once, I saw a crowd,
A host, of golden daffodils;
Beside the lake, beneath the trees,
Fluttering and dancing in the breeze."

MISS S: Very well! . . . Will you go on, Julia?

JULIA: "The waves beside them danced; but they
Outdid the sparkling waves in glee;
A poet could not but be glad,
In such a jocund company."

MISS S: Excuse me. Read that again.

JULIA: "A poet could not but be *gay*,
In such a jocund company."

MISS S: Juliette, you will finish it.

PART V

MISS S: Now, I wonder which one you like best. Just look at these four stanzas! We'll call them stanzas Which one do you like best?

PUPIL: I like the third one best because it tells how the flowers were and how jolly they were.

PUPIL: I like the first one.

MISS S: Why?

PUPIL: I like it because I imagine that I see it, and I like to see a nice picture. I would like to be right there now.

MISS S: Has any one anything further to say?

PUPILS: I think the second is nice. . . . So many! And how they look! And I think it would be very pretty if you looked at it because it says, "on the milky way"—And it looks like a lot of them.

MISS S: It certainly does—many, many!

PUPILS: I like the last one—I think it ends in such a pretty way. . Such lovely words and such nice lines!

MISS S: Which lines are lovely? [*Mildred indicates her preference.*] I see, you like the last. I like the last, too. Just read the last two lines, Sylvia. [*Sylvia recites the last two lines without looking at the text.*]

PART VI

MISS S: Who can say her favorite lines without looking on? Sylvia did that just now without looking on. Let's all first reread the whole poem very attentively to ourselves. . Now, let's try to do what Sylvia did. . You try, Selma.

SELMA: "The waves beside them danced; but they
Outdid the waves in glee."

MISS S: That is the one you said you liked best, isn't it? You like that new work, don't you? Why don't you say the lines before that that make sense? . A little hard!

PUPIL: "A host of golden daffodils,
Beside the lake, beneath the trees,
Fluttering and dancing in the breeze.
Ten thousand saw I at a glance,
Tossing their heads in sprightly dance."

MISS S: Any one else who has a favorite line or lines? What do you like, Rosalind?

ROSALIND: I like, "A poet could not but be gay,
In such a jocund company."

PUPIL: "When all at once I saw a crowd,
A host of golden daffodils,
Beside the lake, beneath the trees,
Fluttering and dancing in the breeze."

MISS S: "Fluttering and dancing," and doing what else?

PUPILS: "Dancing in the breeze."
"They stretched in never-ending line
Along the margin of a bay."

MISS S: What a crowd of them! I wish I were there now! Margaret, have you more to say?

PUPIL: "Continuous as the stars that shine
And twinkle. ."

MISS S: Do you know stars always twinkle? . . . I wonder if any one could say the whole first stanza? You have said every bit of it in separate parts. Will some one try it? Who is willing? . . Mary, you have not volunteered.

MARY: "I wandered lonely as a cloud
That floats on high o'er vales and hills,
When all at once I saw a crowd,
A host, of golden daffodils;
Beside the lake, beneath the trees,
Fluttering and dancing in the breeze."

MISS S: Well done! You begin the second, Margaret. —"Continuous as the stars that shine."—We will help you. What do stars do?

PUPIL: "Twinkle, twinkle, little star."

MARGARET: "Continuous as the stars that shine
And twinkle on the milky way."

MISS S: "They stretch"—
Who will help her?

PUPIL: ". . in never-ending line
Along the margin of a bay:
Ten thousand saw I at a glance
Tossing their heads in sprightly dance."

MISS S: Who will say the third?

PUPIL: "The waves beside them danced; but they
Outdid the sparkling waves in glee:
A poet could not but be (glad) gay,
In such a jocund company:

I gazed—and gazed—but little thought
What wealth the show to me had brought."

MISS S: Good, Alberta. Is anybody ready to say the last stanza?

PUPIL: "For oft, when on my couch I lie"

MISS S: "In vacant—"

ALBERTA: "In vacant or in pensive mood,
They glance (they flash) upon that inward eye
Which is the bliss of solitude."

MISS S: "And then"—

PUPIL: "And then my heart with pleasure fills,
And dances with the daffodils."

PART VII

MISS S: Very good! Well, you have all enjoyed this poem, I'm sure. On Tuesday and Thursday, we'll read one or two more poems about flowers. I'd like you to look them up in your reader and read them first at home.

A few interpretative questions and suggestions.—1. Reread this lesson report very quickly. 2. Indicate the main point of each part. 3. Prepare an outline of the teacher's lesson plan. 4. What was the approximate ratio of teacher activity to pupil activity? 5. Point out one or two minor blemishes almost inevitable now and then in any teaching period. 6. Note the use of silent reading. 7. For what purpose was memorization employed? 8. How was the lesson motivated? 9. To what degree was this lesson socialized? 10. To what extent was the doctrine of individual differences observed? 11. Was this a supervised study lesson? Why? 12. To what degree was the oral reading a response to a real audience situation? 13. Note the way in which the teacher handled the "give-and-take" of the conversation, how she kept the focus of attention on the thought and beauty of the poem, how she subordinated the relatively

unimportant matters, how she encouraged feeling in the rendition, how she attempted to have the pupils visualize the poet's images, and how she restrained her own comments throughout. 14. Note how much at ease, though under good discipline, the children apparently were from beginning to end.

Special ways of creating audience situations.—Besides the ways and means of creating an audience situation indicated in the lesson just studied, the following may also be suggestive:

1. *Through dramatization.*—The pupils "try out" for parts in a play to be given before either their classmates or schoolmates, those not reading being a committee of judges.

2. *Through oral reading exchange.*—The teachers of two or more classes on the same grade arrange to have their pupils bring in clippings on current events, perhaps restricted in choice to such themes as aviation, sports, or adventure. Exchange is made, the pupils of one class reading the clippings of another. The newspaper and periodical will serve this purpose admirably. Clippings may be mounted on uniform backs of oaktag and prepared for expressive oral reading by the addition of a foreword or subheadings. A committee of selected pupils, the personnel changing from week to week or from month to month, should assemble the material in proper sequence, closely similar items being excluded.

3. *Through a radio hour.*—Following ample discussion the class may select a topic, such as the *Graf Zeppelin's* flight around the world. The pupils are instructed to bring in clippings or maps bearing upon the theme. A program is arranged for "broadcasting" the news. There

are a studio manager, an announcer, and several speakers. Appropriate seatwork would take the form of competitive drawing for the selection of the best map of the airship's route, the winner to enlarge his map on the blackboard or on a large piece of oaktag. The other contestants are advised to retain their drawings so that they may conveniently follow the speakers in their progressive narrative. The announcer states that there is a large "master map" at the "studio."

4. *Through an imaginary trip.*—The pupils of a single classroom, or two associated classrooms, may procure folders of tours or other vacation trips. Written compositions may provide appropriate seatwork for the entire class. Groups of pupils are formed for more or less extended research, but within the children's limitations, of course. Oral report is made in class. Each group is to be ready at an assigned or agreed upon time. A class folder may be an appropriate "follow-up" of outside assignment covering a fortnight or more of leisurely reading and construction effort.

The effective conclusion.—A clearly-thought-out conclusion may add permanent value to an oral reading lesson. There will be occasions when no formal conclusion is needed, when, in fact, it may be entirely out of place. The effect of a beautiful rendition may be safely left without further embellishment or comment of any kind. There are other times when an additional word or thought may be helpful.

The following conclusions have been used by successful teachers when the situation seemed to warrant their use:

1. *Memorization.*—In the stenographically reported lesson in this chapter the teacher deemed it advisable to

have the pupils memorize the poem. If the matter read is, in whole or in part, worthy of remembrance because, it may be, of beauty of idea or expression, it has permanent cultural value, and pupils should be encouraged to commit it to memory.

2. *Discussion.*—The nature of the material may call for conversational comment. The main point of the selection may be capable of two or more interpretations and therefore argumentative. For example, a teacher may put this question to her class after a reading of Longfellow's "Excelsior": Was the youth sensible in proceeding against oft-repeated advice? Why? or, Why not?

3. *Application.*—A specific, practical application of the central thought may be in order. Overmoralizing should, of course, be avoided. Totality of effect, if cumulative, is likely to be greater without a too obvious tacking on of a moral at the end. "Excelsior" and the "Song of the Chattahoochee" afford illustrations of the possibilities of application to the daily life of pupils. So far as possible, pupils should be permitted to think through such situations for themselves.

4. *Thought-provoking question.*—A thought-provoking question, some query or other, may be left to germinate in the pupils' minds. Something should remain for the imagination to feed upon. Frequently, a mere word from teacher or pupil will be sufficient to excite a whole train of thoughts. One recalls two illustrations, one by a pupil, the other by a teacher: "I'd like to have been in that crowd when the hero came home!" and, "I wonder what I would have done in those circumstances!"

5. *Re-reading.*—Certain stanzas or paragraphs—"personal preference literary gems"—may be re-read. For the sake of totality of effect an entire selection may be re-read,

if it is not too long. "The Daffodils," the last few lines of "Evangeline", the peroration of a great speech—Webster's "Reply to Hayne", for example—are illustrations of material appropriate for re-reading.[1]

6. *Class comment.*—It will be stimulating, on occasion, to call for an expression of opinion from the pupils by way of summing up impressions made during the period. Browning's thought in the poem, "Tray," for instance, may be stoutly defended or as severely criticised.

A lesson should close on an inevitable note, on some thought which derives from the very nature of the teaching situation—the selection read or the circumstances of time and occasion, the pupils, the class as a whole, and the grade. The conclusion ought not to be forced or thrust into undue prominence at the close. Better none at all than one "lugged in" merely to satisfy a school requirement or a fallacious notion that "there must be one." Furthermore, if time seems to be lacking, it would be better to prepare for another period to serve as a follow-up in the lesson-sequence. In such a sequence, one lesson may be viewed as a preparation for or a conclusion of another.

The assignment.—If made at all in the middle grades, assignments for after-lesson work should be in the nature of a helpful and natural development of classroom work—a sensible follow-up of the main point, of some important element which needs further consideration, or of the conclusion itself. In the lower grades, possibly through the fourth or even a higher grade as well, "home work" may be omitted without much loss, especially if the program

[1]Read Carter V. Good's "The Effect of a Single Reading Versus Two Readings of a Given Body of Material."

of lessons and study periods has been well planned, that is, properly balanced and thoroughly integrated with physical exercise in playground or shop.

Good assignments, however, have their place in the upper grades and probably in the later middle grades. Where the school or the neighborhood has a library of well selected reference or other supplementary books, where there is opportunity to pay a follow-up visit to some industrial establishment or a museum, the assignment that asks pupils to continue a line of thoughtful, purposeful intellectual activity beyond the classroom door will surely be in order.

Whenever any such after-class work is required the teacher should make certain that it is important and worth while enough to engage the interest of a class. It should be anticipated and as carefully thought out as the lesson itself. Never should it be a matter of pure accident with little or no relevancy and reasonable purpose. The pupils should be made to feel that what is being asked is only a natural result of that to which they have been earnestly devoting their time and attention.

Every assignment should have at least the following characteristics: definiteness of purpose and clearness of statement; value in and of itself as well as appropriateness to the lesson out of which it grew; scope to allow of ample time to perform what is required; presentation of difficulty not too great and yet not so slight as to appear meaningless or hardly worth while.[1]

The time when the teacher should make her assignment would appear to be at the end of the period when it becomes a natural outgrowth of what has just been taught.

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[1]Consult C. W Odell's "The Assignment of Lessons."

Still, many teachers, and particularly supervisors, prefer the beginning of the lesson period. If delayed until the close of the lesson, these teachers point out, the assignment may be made too hurriedly, possibly none too clearly understood by the class, and therefore looked upon by the pupils as a mere after-thought, meriting very little of their respectful attention.

Circumstances, as usual, will be a better guide than dogmatic prescription. In schools which set apart supervised study periods and schedule them to follow direct teaching periods as far as practicable, the question solves itself. If the follow-up is not to be done in preparation for an immediately succeeding period or on the next day, ample time should be taken, preferably at the beginning of the period when the pupils' attention may be presumed to be greater and when opportunity for interpretative inquiry on their part is the more easily permissible. It is also conceivable that a well-planned lesson may now and then include a partial assignment as the period is in progress, although this method may have the very serious disadvantage of lack of sufficient emphasis to insure clear memory on the pupils' part, as well as the demerit of apparent, if not actual, interruption of the teaching procedure.

Review.—Oral reading in the middle grades is primarily for audience situations with selections which have social value. Conversational study, dramatization, clipping-exchange, radio hour, and imaginary trip may all provide genuine audience situations, while material having a group appeal, such as humor or choice pieces of verse, may indicate possibilities for oral reading. The conclusion and the assignment, if any, should not be mere afterthoughts but rather integral parts of a lesson-whole, clear and contributory as well as properly timed.

STUDY PROBLEMS

A. Discussion Topics

1. The following lesson plans were prepared by student-teachers. Study each plan carefully and then rank the four in order of merit. Be ready to defend your ranking in class on the basis of principles set forth in the text.

Time: 20 minutes *Class:* 5A
Subject: English *Type:* Appreciation
Aim: To have children realize how the unconquerable spirit of Columbus resulted in the discovery of America.
Illustrative material: Pictures of Columbus and his ships. Poem, "Columbus," by Miller.
Procedure
Preparation: Discuss with the children the difficulties Columbus encountered when he tried to obtain ships and men.
Presentation: Have children read silently to get the swing and spirit of the poem. Teacher read poem. Ask children what they like about poem and have them read aloud the portion they like best.
Conclusion: Ask children if they know of any others who had the spirit of Columbus, such as Edison, Watt, Fulton.
Assignment: Memorize the last two lines of the last stanza or any other part; or bring in other illustrations of men who had the same spirit as Columbus.

Time: 9:00–9:30 *Class:* 5A
Subject: Reading—Poetry *Type:* Appreciation
Aim: To teach one of the great moral truths—the power of perseverance—through a study of Columbus's character.
Illustrative material: "Columbus," by J. Miller; Piloty's picture of "Columbus on Deck of *Santa Maria.*" Biography of Columbus written by son.

Procedure

1. Read extracts from the biography, which describe the hardships he encountered before he reached his goal—
   a. The refusals to fit him out an expedition
   b. The superstition of the age
   c. The poorly fitted expedition
   d. The mutiny of the crew
2. Read entire poem orally, expressing the sentiments of sorrow, despair, and joy.
3. Explain terms: (teacher or pupils)
   a. Azores—Portuguese islands off the coast of Europe. (The land last touched by Columbus)
   b. "Gates of Hercules"—Straits of Gibraltar.
   c. "He kept his deck and peered through darkness."
   d. "A starlit flag unfurled." (Some of the islands Columbus discovered later became part of the United States.)
   e. "Time's burst of dawn"—a new era in the world's history.
4. Which lines especially bring out his trait of perseverance? Let various children read them to the class.
5. Call attention to the splendid description of the storm, in stanza 3.
6. Discuss: "He gave the world its grandest lesson: 'On! Sail on!'"
7. In what way can we utilize the motto profitably in our daily lives?

Assignment: Memorize the line or lines you consider most beautiful.

Time: 20 minutes *Class:* 5A
Subject: Poetry *Type:* Appreciation
Aim: To get pupils to feel the spirit that led Columbus on.
Illustrative material: Perry Picture:—"Columbus on the Deck of the *Santa Maria*".

Procedure

1. Correlate with history:
    a. Discuss dangers Columbus had to face in his undertakings.
    b. Compare vessel in which they set sail with one used now for such voyages.
2. Read poem to children. Discussion:
    a. What can you say of the character and determination of Columbus? Why should we honor him so?
    b. In what ways may his words, "Sail on!" be applied to our nation at this or any other time?

Assignment: None.

Time: 30 minutes *Class:* 5B
Subject: Poetry *Type:* Appreciation
Aim: To teach poem "Columbus" to show how perseverance and endurance will win in the end.
Illustrative material: Pictures of Columbus
Procedure

Introduction: Why do we celebrate next Tuesday, Oct. 12? Who was Columbus? What hardships did he encounter?

Presentation: Tell class this adventurous story has been written in poetry form. Read poem to class. What do you learn of character of Columbus? Class repeat famous words.

Assignment: During holiday go to Central Park and see statue of Columbus. Copy the inscription on the monument.

2. "The development of good oral reading is not necessary to all, only to those who wish to be public speakers."

3. "It has come to be commonly realized that silent reading is more natural and useful than oral reading."

4. "In practically all the recitations in oral reading that I have observed, teachers invariably correct the error as soon as it is made."

5. "If a pupil has a very serious speech defect, curtail the allotment to be read. Do not let the class hear his mispronunciations and faulty reading for any length of time. It is best for his own personal benefit to read aloud to the teacher privately."

6. "At the end of every reading the child who has read should receive corrective criticisms. These may be made by the children but it should be done in such a way as to avoid priggishness. In a sixth-year class I taught, after a child had completed his reading, some of the boys said he had mispronounced a word. Others said he had been correct. Then I told them to take out their dictionaries and find what Webster said about it."

7. "In one school, I gave a reading lesson to a class I really didn't know. Unfortunately, I picked on a foreign child to read. Soon I discovered my mistake. His speech was very poor, so I asked another child to continue."

8. "Assignments are little more than excellent opportunities to copy some other pupil's work."

B. Group Research Topics

1. A study of practical oral reading lessons from the standpoint of the particulars mentioned in this chapter.

2. A study of reading lesson conclusions as observed in a number of middle-grade classrooms.

3. A symposium on assignments: the views of several teachers of experience. Results should be tabulated.

C. Individual Research Topics

1. A review of "Classroom Procedure in the Teaching of Literature," pages 149–153, in the *Twenty-Fourth Yearbook.*

2. A review of one of the following: Haliburton and Smith's *Teaching of Poetry in the Grades;* special chapters in McMurry's *Special Method in Reading for the Grades;* Briggs and Coffman's *Reading in the Public Schools.*

3. A tabulation of suggestions as found in Anderson and Davidson's *Reading Objectives,* Chapter XI, "Audience Situations in Reading."

D. Theme Assignments

In each of the following cases explain the meaning, defend or refute its value, and illustrate your thought by concrete illustrations:

1. "In all grades try to develop habits of good oral reading and to stimulate keen interest in it."

2. "The teacher must first arouse interest by preparatory work—an introduction to the story: just enough to create a desire to find out, to read what comes next."

3. "In the middle grades the children should have mastered the mechanics of oral reading, and more time should be given to thought and content."

4. "Although the reading period is stressed in the first years, very often in the intermediate classes the teacher merely hands out books and has one child after another read orally."

5. "In the intermediate grades create an audience situation in oral reading. In the last school in which I was a student-teacher, oral reading was needed. The pronunciation and expression were very poor. The difficulty that I encountered was that each child would read to me and only to me."

6. "The procedure did not show careful organization, for the teacher simply had a child read aloud. When he came to a word he could not pronounce, the teacher helped him with it. If the teacher had prepared a list of difficult words and presented them to the children before they began to read, the lesson would have been smoother. The teacher might have had questions prepared and have had a child read orally until he found the answer to the question."

7. "The conclusion is a check-up on what has been done during the previous reading."

8. Chubb on reading literature in the intermediate grades. (Read Chapter XX in *The Teaching of English.*)

CHAPTER XIII

TEACHING CHILDREN TO READ SILENTLY WITH PLEASURE AND EFFICIENCY

The main points of this chapter.—This chapter and the next present lesson-procedures of prime worth in teaching reading in the intermediate grades. As has been said, children by the end of this reading period should be able to read widely. They should also be able to read with pleasure and efficiency. In these grades silent reading should be considered as it enters into the experience of leisure time and also as it plays an essential part in the study process. The following three points will be discussed in this chapter:

1. Time allotment for oral and silent reading.
2. Silent reading as a study process.
3. Silent reading for recreation.

Time allotment for oral and silent reading.—How much time should be devoted to oral and how much to silent reading is necessarily an unsettled question. It is difficult to say just what the proportion should be, for it will vary with the type of children taught—with their abilities, their mental, cultural, and linguistic equipment. Then, too, as we have seen, in many a lesson oral and silent reading may assist each other to a degree depending, of course, upon circumstances.

After all, the proportion of oral to silent reading has

given many present-day teachers altogether too great concern. In their enthusiasm for silent reading some have seemed to forget or to neglect the very real importance of oral reading. Audience situations must continue to exist, and, where they do, oral reading will find its place. The best language modes must be presented orally to children, and directed thinking through oral reading will remain a most important school experience. On the other hand, silent reading unquestionably looms larger and larger in the daily life of the pupil—as in that of his elders.

Perhaps, a pedagogically useful way of looking at this problem is to view oral reading as generally in the ascendant in the earliest grades but gradually in the descendant as the school grades advance through the middle years. In the upper years oral reading recaptures something of its earlier prominence in the attention that will be given to refinement of oral expression. It is to be remembered, also, that easy lessons in silent reading are not to be omitted in even the earliest year, and that expressive oral reading suited to the age-level and experience-level of pupils should persist throughout the course.

Silent reading in study.—Elsewhere[1] the distinction has been drawn between recreatory reading and work-type reading. A further word is in place here. Although silent reading may be for either purpose—work or recreation—it is the special reading province of the middle grades to provide broad opportunity for efficient study. Efficient silent reading is of the very essence of such study. As has been indicated on an earlier page,[2] however, study

[1]See, especially, pages 255–258.

[2]See page 289.

may not necessarily preclude the element of enjoyment. Indeed, we know that to many an adult one of the great satisfactions in life is the achievement of intellectual results.

Study problems for consideration inside and outside the reading classroom will receive attention increasingly as the child passes through the middle years and approaches the upper grades. Such study-reading naturally bears an intimate relation to the whole study-plan of the schoolroom. When directed and controlled it has obvious value as an integral unit of the silent reading process.

In silent reading for study, each subject presents certain specific reading problems to the pupils. Ability to read a chapter on history should not lead one necessarily to assume an equal ability to read a chapter on geography, nature, or hygiene. Every textbook has its own more or less specialized vocabulary and phraseology. It also presents problems peculiar to itself. The teacher must accordingly prepare reading lessons with suitable drill periods to meet these needs. The broad, general objective should be the pupils' independent reading of anything in print. It is desirable that each of the middle and upper grades contribute something definite toward this end. In the lower grades there is usually a progressive program of reading methods. Each grade is made responsible for a certain amount of phonic drill, phonogramic analysis, or what not. Similarly, a progressive program of reading in the higher grades should see to it that some specific ability receives primary attention and emphasis.

Let us briefly consider the problem as it is presented in several of the subject matters of the middle grades—in arithmetic, geography, history, civics, hygiene, and literature.

Silent reading in studying arithmetic.[1]—An outstanding reason for success or failure in arithmetic is not only knowledge or ignorance of the fundamental processes but also, especially in the middle and upper grades, ability or inability to grasp the meaning of a printed problem as a whole and to analyze it into its essential, constituent parts. The teacher should therefore provide reading exercises that will afford opportunity to do just these things. The following will serve as an illustration.

The teacher instructs her pupils to turn to their arithmetics. Here is the problem that she wishes them to solve. Before solving it, however, she requires that they read the problem carefully and think over the questions that follow it.

The Ingleside family of four persons plan an automobile trip to visit a relative who lives 600 miles away. They expect to start on a Monday morning and to drive 8 hours each day at an average rate of 25 miles per hour. Their car uses a gallon of gasoline for every 15 miles of travel. They figure their expenses as follows: gasoline, 21 cents per gallon; oil $1.30 for the entire journey; food, 50¢ per person per meal for 3 meals each day; lodging, $2.50 each per night.

1. Read and re-read the whole problem *with great care.*
2. Imagine yourself one of this Ingleside family.
3. How would you find the cost of gasoline?
4. How would you find the cost of meals?
5. How would you find the cost of lodging?
6. How would you find the entire cost of this trip?
7. How would you find the average cost per person?
8. How would you find the average cost per mile?

A recently issued pamphlet upon the art of study[2] conveniently summarizes the procedure in the silent reading of arithmetic:

[1]Read O'Brien's *Reading: Its Psychology and Pedagogy*, Chapter VII, "Characteristics of Arithmetic Reading".

[2]"Teaching the Art of Study", (Board of Education, The City of New York) pages 33–34.

(a) Analyze problems to find (1) what is given; (2) what is required; (3) process involved. No arithmetical calculations. Check up to discover whether pupils understand the meaning of arithmetical terms.[1]

(b) Find approximations to develop the habit of judging an answer. Will it be more or less, etc.?

(c) Type problems written on board. Class finds similar type in textbook.

(d) Pupils make up problems similar to one in textbook.

Silent reading in studying geography.—The reading of geography presupposes a rather wide variety of skills. There is much that is purely recreatory in reading about lands and peoples; there is also much that requires careful study. Back of it all, as grade succeeds grade, should be richer, deeper, and more broadly extensive reading. The intelligent interpretation of geographical phenomena requires an apperceptive basis wherein to associate the newly acquired facts and to give them meaning. Supplementary reading of stories of travel, and even of poetry, with many related themes, will prove valuable. Visual aids—pictures, graphs, and objects—as well as visits to factory and farm, forest, mountain, and shore, will greatly assist. The teacher will also find tourist agencies, railroad and steamship offices, and government bureaus of great service in supplying useful collateral material for both recreational and problem-solving reading. "Live" matter illuminates the class text and tends to stimulate genuine interest.

The *Twenty-Fourth Yearbook*[2] has two very informative paragraphs in this connection:

The work, or study, type of reading in the field of grography involves practically all the general reading skills and habits

[1] *Stevenson's Arithmetic Reading (Problem Analysis) Tests* may be used to advantage.

[2] Page 109.

necessary to intensive reading. Pupils must analyze what they read to find answers to questions, to secure facts relating to larger problems, and to select the main points in a paragraph of actual material. Pupils must associate ideas in right relation and they must associate what is read with previous experience. They must be able to grasp the author's organization and be able to reorganize what they read. They must be able to form accurate judgments in the light of geographical principles and they must be able to retain what is read, both for immediate and for future use.

In addition to those general abilities, the reading and study of geographical materials presents a number of reading situations involving special habits which do not occur in other subjects. These include reading of maps, charts, graphs, statistical tables; reading of pictures and slides; reading of railroad folders; understanding of the vocabulary peculiar to geography; relating facts to principles; remembering locations apart from logical associations. Drill in such habits and skills peculiar to geography should be emphasized in the geography classes.

The student will, of course, understand that the following project[1] is to be carried through possibly a fortnight or more. Furthermore, not all of it need be used. It should be adapted to individual grade, class, and pupil needs. It may be that only two or three parts of it will be serviceable in a given school.

Theme: Central America

Aim: To present varying types of reading as a closely related whole in the study of the geography of Central America and the Antilles.

Motivation: Colonel Lindbergh's "good-will" journey in December, January, and February of 1927–1928. Teacher posts on class bulletin board several newspaper clippings and magazine pictures of "We"—the flyer and his plane—as they appeared at Bolling Field, Washington. Pupils have been

[1]See definition of term "project" on pages 208

asked to bring in anything they can to illustrate Lindbergh's achievements.

Illustrative materials: In addition to those mentioned above there are the following, if possible: Pictures of scenes in Central America; a large map of North America and others of Mexico, Central America, and the Antilles; map-paper for seat-work; advertising matter from tourist companies, railroad and steamship offices, and government bureaus—previously received through class correspondence—magazines such as the *National Geographic;* books such as the *Peeps at Many Lands* series (Macmillan), and, perhaps, Colonel Lindbergh's *We* (Putnam) and Admiral Byrd's *Skyward* (Putnam)—these to be on class library table or shelves.

Teacher's preparation: General outline of project plan; thorough familiarity with subject matter and general and special abilities of pupils; planning of class, group, and, in a general way, individual activities; consideration of thought-provoking questions.

Pupils' preparation: Home or library period—extensive reading of easy material about the people of Latin America, and the ways and means of aviation.

Procedure:

A. Class activities[1]—I

1. Oral discussion of (a) route taken—board map being used to indicate general direction; (b) territory covered—its land and sea features with difficulties to be met with.
2. Intensive silent reading—use of index of class geography to find material, the reading following a few guiding questions formulated by the teacher.
3. Oral reading to elaborate, prove, or disprove some point or other made in discussion; and to make more vivid some special phase of the subject.
4. Seat sketch-map—the best, as selected by a pupil committee, to be enlarged and placed on board.

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[1]Suited to the various abilities usually to be found in almost any class. Reread pages 8–11, 62–63, 76–77, 104–108, and 110–111.

B. Group activities[1]—I

1. Out of class

Group 1 to read about stopping places of journey.

Group 2 to read about flying conditions—weather, landing fields, etc.

Group 3 to read special articles on aviation in a children's encyclopedia, such as *The Book of Knowledge*, *The World Book*, or COMPTON'S *Pictured Encyclopedia.*

Group 4 to prepare outline of a "tourists' guide" in three sections, the booklet to be about Mexico, Central America, the Antilles, and to be called, say, "Following Lindbergh from Washington to Havana."

Group 5 to prepare "two-minute reading-talks"—selected newspaper clippings grouped according to several pertinent topics and summarized for oral presentation with, perhaps, an occasional paragraph read and explained.

Group 6 to prepare a list of books and articles upon the several aspects of the countries of journey.

Group 7 to prepare a time-table indicating "start-off" and arrival time, elapsed time, and distances covered, with comparative columns showing approximate time and distance by rail or water.

Group 8 to prepare a pronouncing glossary of personal and place names with a note of explanation to accompany each.

Group 9 to look up several appropriate poems.

2. In class

Group chairmen report.

C. Class activities—II

1. Oral discussion of class booklet, based upon group-reports.

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[1]Suited to the various abilities usually to be found in almost any class. See footnote on preceding page. Consult also pages 207, 215–218, and 220–225.

2. Coöperative preparation of table of contents for "Following Lindbergh from Washington to Havana".
3. All pupils write "Foreword"—the best to be selected by a committee.

D. Group activities—II
1. Groups prepare the several chapters or divisions of the "tourists' guide".
2. New group prepares a cover design.

Interpretative questions and suggestions.—1. In what ways was this project motivated at the beginning? 2. Indicate how interest was sustained. 3. How was recreatory reading provided for? How work-type? 4. What good reading habits were encouraged? How? What provision was made for situations involving habits peculiar to the reading of geography? 5. Indicate wherein the following desirable objective in the study of geography was sought: gaining experience not otherwise easily obtainable. 6. What provision was made for wealth of easy reading material rich in content and sufficiently varied to meet the probable individual needs of the pupils? 7. Note the relationship between oral and silent reading. In which case was the one a preparation for the other? In which was each a check on the other? In which did each serve to motivate the other? 8. In what respects was this lesson socialized? Individualized? 9. To what degree was it a supervised study lesson? 10. In what way did the teacher avoid over-emphasis upon (a) haphazard reading, "just to pass a pleasant hour", and (b) a bare recital of facts? 11. How was oral reading made to contribute to class discussion? To group assignments? 12. To what extent was the library brought into service? 13. What definite training in organization of material did you find? 14. To what

degree was pupil-leadership recognized and provided for? How were individual differences provided for? To what extent was the reading sufficiently varied to meet differing levels of reading ability? In what ways were the pupils led to pursue independent reading? 15. When and for what reason was re-reading required? 16. State to what degree the aim was fulfilled. 17. How were results checked?

Silent reading in studying history.[1]—The school study of history used to be a matter largely of memorization of dates, facts, and general details. Today, the teaching of this subject, as of others, gives evidence more and more of the revolution that has taken place in educational method. While memory still plays its part in the learning of history, the child is asked to concern himself with essential matters. If a fact or a date is pivotal it should be memorized, but only as it takes meaning from the events of which it is a part or for which it is a symbol. Cause and effect, the influence of environment and of leadership upon the course of men and nations, the social, the economic, the scientific aspects of affairs, are all dwelt upon quite as often as political changes. It goes almost without saying that the teacher of reading will understand the varying emphasis to be placed upon each or any of these and other[2] matters according to the grade, class, and individual pupils taught. An illustration[3] will point this matter:

[1]See footnote on page 322.

[2]Modern invention has made possible many ways of vivifying historical situations. Faithful reproductions in pictures, slides, and motion picture reels may now be had. Consult Daniel C. Knowlton's *Motion Pictures in History Teaching.*

[3]The story is adapted from the author's *The Spirit of the American Revolution as Revealed in the Poetry of the Period,* pages 70–72.

THE STORY: "The Year 1780 in American History"

Of all the later years of the American Revolution the year 1780 was by far the most discouraging. Only strong, brave hearts could bear up under the difficulties, both military and financial, which beset them on every side. In the hope of destroying the patriot cause in the South, Clinton had already begun operations in the Carolinas. Lincoln held Charleston, but overwhelming odds soon forced his surrender, with the capture of his army of more than two thousand. Later, at Camden, General Gates, of Saratoga fame, suffered a humiliating defeat hardly less disastrous than Lincoln's at Charleston. Later still, the startling news of Arnold's treason at West Point stirred men to the depths.

In the midst of this accumulating misfortune it was pleasing to Washington and his men to learn of the splendid activity and devotion of the patriotic women of the land. Theirs were very practical ways of rendering aid. There were women who took up their pens in the cause their brothers were fighting. There were others who used their needles to as good effect and with as tireless an energy.

The ladies of Pennsylvania and New Jersey laid plans to raise by voluntary subscription a fund for supplies and clothing sufficient to meet the needs of the whole army. At first, Mrs. Reed, the wife of General Reed, headed the ladies' association. This loyal woman had performed her service with success when she died within sight of her goal. Mrs. Bache, daughter of Benjamin Franklin, took Mrs. Reed's place and carried the work forward to completion.

In a letter to Washington, dated July 4, 1780, Mrs. Reed wrote as follows: "The amount of the subscription of 22,680 dollars, and £625 6s. 8d. in specie, makes in the whole in paper money 300,634 dollars." When allowance is made for the great depreciation of the currency at the time, one must still be impressed with these figures. There were over 1600 contributors, and "all ranks of society seem to have united, the Marchioness of Lafayette giving "one hundred guineas in specie."

At Washington's suggestion the money was spent for material out of which the ladies promised to make more than two thou-

sand shirts for his soldiers! Mrs. Bache graciously wrote the commander-in-chief the day after Christmas, as follows: "We wish them to be worn with as much pleasure as they were made."

The Lesson[1]

Aim: Rapid, intensive reading with responsibility of remembering significant sequence of facts.

Motivation: Class rivalry to make best score.

Procedure: Direction to pupils: Read the passage once very carefully, then answer the following questions (which appear on the blackboard):

1. Why was the year 1780 a most discouraging year?
2. What bright spot appeared on the patriotic horizon?
3. What did the women of Pennsylvania and New Jersey plan to do?
4. What was the suggestion of the commander-in-chief?
5. How was this suggestion received?

Other desirable reading habits, which history and geography may serve to train, are the following: (a) determining the truth or falsity of a given statement; (b) grasping the organization of ideas in a unified whole; (c) gathering information for use in solving a problem; (d) finding the essential point of a selection, with perhaps the more important subordinate points; (e) appreciating the relative values of facts in a given passage. Of course, once again, the doctrine of individual differences will play its part in the preparation of reading lessons seeking these aims or any one of them.

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[1]Consult "Some Difficulties in Elementary School History," by A. M. Ayer. In this investigation an "astonishing inability" was revealed "on the part of both fifth- and seventh-grade pupils" who failed to comprehend fifth-grade history paragraphs. There was a range in comprehension of fifth-grade history paragraphs from 25 per cent for pupils of average sixth-year reading ability to 75 per cent for pupils of average tenth-grade reading ability. Even ability of college sophomore grade failed to register higher than 93 per cent in comprehension.

Silent reading in studying civics.—An illustration of a supervised study lesson in reading civics follows:

THE STORY: "Water Supply of the City of New York"[1]

THE LESSON

Class: Fifth-year girls of normal intelligence.
Time: 45 minutes.

PART I

TEACHER: Mention one thing you did this morning to prepare yourself for school.

PUPIL: I washed my teeth, Miss G—.

TEACHER: What did Anna have to use when she washed her teeth?

PUPILS: A tooth brush. . Clean water.

TEACHER: Is there any other use that you can make of water?

PUPIL: To drink it.

TEACHER: Think of some other uses of water, and I'll write them on the board. [*Teacher writes,* "Drinking", "Washing", "Cooking", "Cleaning", *as the children suggest them.*]

TEACHER: There is something else which is very important but no one has mentioned it. [*Children suggest several answers, namely, bathing, transportation, and use in putting out fires. The teacher stresses this third use.*]

TEACHER: Now, as we look at these different uses, we can see that water is valuable to us. . What did you do this morning in order to get this water?

PUPIL: I turned on the faucet.

TEACHER: Yes, all you had to do was to turn on the faucet. . About how many people are there living in the City of New York?

PUPIL: Six million. [*Teacher writes this on the board in figures.*]

TEACHER: Now, would you like to find out in detail how all of these people in this city get their water?

PUPIL: Yes [*very enthusiastically*].

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[1]From *History and Civics, Fifth Year—First Half,* (Lesson IV) by GILES J. SWAN, pages 271–275.

PART II

TEACHER: Turn to page 271 and find the part called Lesson 4. Now, I am going to ask you to look through Lesson 4, which begins on page 271 and ends on page 275, and tell me into how many big parts this lesson has been divided. What is there which will help you to find this very easily?

PUPIL: The black print.

TEACHER: Now, let us see what the black print on page 271 says.

PUPIL: "Water."

TEACHER: Now, find something else which is written in heavy black type.

PUPIL: "Water Supply of the City of New York." [*Teacher writes this on the blackboard.*]

TEACHER: Is there any other part with a heading like that?

PUPIL: No.

TEACHER: Then, how shall we mark the first part?

PUPIL: Part 1.

TEACHER: The second part?

PUPIL: Part 2.

TEACHER: How are you going to read this in order to get the thought?

PUPIL: Carefully.

TEACHER: What is there in this book which will help you to get the thought of each paragaph.

PUPIL: There is heavy black print in the margin.

TEACHER: What do we call these things?

PUPILS: Clues. . . Secrets. [*Teacher suggests calling them* "Sign Posts", as "they keep the mind on the right road. . They keep it from wandering."]

TEACHER: Now, I am going to ask you to read carefully, watching your sign posts. Start on page 271 and end on page 275. Now, watch your sign posts carefully and you will give me some very nice answers.

PART III

TEACHER: You may now begin. [*Children read silently for five minutes. While the children are reading the teacher makes*

some suggestions, quite unobtrusively, as follows: Hold your book up nicely so that the light may fall on it in the proper way. Remember, whenever you have to turn a page, take hold of the page on the upper right hand corner. That will keep your book looking nice and neat.]

Time is up. Leave your book open on your desk and put your pencil in the place. Do not close your book.

TEACHER: What other book in your desk would help to make this story clearer to you?

PUPILS: Our geography.

TEACHER: All right, you may put your geography on your desk. Leave this book closed. Slip it under your reader. . These questions may be answered in two ways. Some of them may be answered by finding a sentence in a paragraph. The others you will have to answer by making a sentence from what you have been reading. You may look in the first paragraph for the answer to this question: Why is water necessary? When you find that sentence, you may raise your hand and read it to us. [*Child reads sentence.*]

TEACHER: Now, listen to this one: Who were the first European settlers on Manhattan Island?

PUPILS: The Dutch.

TEACHER: How did they get their water? You may read that answer. [*Child reads the sentence which answers this question.*]

TEACHER: Good. Why couldn't they use the water from the East River or the Hudson River, which was very near them?

PUPIL: Because it was salty.

TEACHER: Until 1800 how did the City of New York get water for its people? [*Child reads the answer in which the word* "relied" *appears. The child mispronounces this word.*] What was that word? [*Child pronounces it correctly.*] What other word could we use? [*Children suggest* "depended", "trusted".]

TEACHER: Now, the city started to grow very big, and they didn't have water enough. Where did they have to go when they found that the well water was not sufficient?

PUPIL: To Croton.

TEACHER: Where is Croton

PUPILS: Many miles north of New York City. Forty miles. . . Fifty miles.

TEACHER: Now, there was quite a little difference in those answers. . . Suppose you look it up. Who will read the sentence that gives us the proper answer? [*Child reads the answer.*]

TEACHER: Now, open your geography to page 16 in the back of the book. If you go 'way up to the northern part of this map and find the letter *Y* of *York*, you will find a word.

PUPIL: Croton-on-Hudson.

TEACHER: Now, put one finger on that word and then put one finger on Manhattan Island. What distance does it tell us is between the two?

PUPILS: Forty miles.

TEACHER: Close your geographies. Now, I want to know when our city first began using that water from Croton. See if you can find the answer and where the water was first stored. [*Child reads the answer, in which the public library is mentioned.*] How many of you have been in the public library? [*Teacher explains that a reservoir used to be where the public library now is. Teacher writes* "reservoir" *on the board. Teacher asks children to pronounce it. Teacher explains that the supply was not enough.*]

TEACHER: What supply was added after 1917? [*Child reads sentence which tells that the Catskill system was added.*]

1842—Croton

1917—Catskill

TEACHER: Now, I am going to ask you to open your geographies to page 1 in the back, and see if we can locate these four places. Where does it tell us we will have to go for them?

PUPIL: Catskill Mountains.

TEACHER: Now, let's see how many of us can find the Catskill mountain section. Who will be the first one to find one for us? Schoharie, Esopus, Rondout, Catskill.

TEACHER: A little farther south from Catskill you will find a place called Kingston. You will find some words near that name.

PUPIL: Ashokan Reservoir. [*Teacher writes this on the blackboard and has several children pronounce the words.*]

TEACHER: Now, let's go back to our readers. Now,

I want to know how the water is brought from the Catskill reservoir to houses. .There is one sentence which is going to answer it very well. [*Child reads this sentence. Child mispronounces the word* "aqueduct". *Teacher writes it on the board. Teacher briefly explains the derivation of the word and has child pronounce it correctly several times.*]

TEACHER: Now, let's find out what this aqueduct really is.

PUPILS: A huge pipe. A pipe which is really bigger in its diameter than this room.

TEACHER: This may seem very big to us, but we must remember how many people have to be supplied with water, and what other uses are made of water every day. Now, let's look for this answer: How does the water for Queens and Brooklyn get to those boroughs? [*Child reads the answer. Teacher refers children to their geographies to find the location of these boroughs. Teacher traces with children the course of the water as it comes from the Catskill aqueduct to the Bronx, then to Queens and Brooklyn, and then to Richmond.*]

TEACHER: What are reservoirs? [*Child reads the answer.*] Now, let's see if we can get down these words which we have learned this morning because whenever we want to talk about water supply these words will be very necessary. [*Teacher writes* "faucets" *on the blackboard and points to* "aqueduct" *and* "reservoir," *which she has already written there.*]

TEACHER: Now, we haven't found out how the water is brought down from the mountains to the separate boroughs. Where must we have it in order to use it?

PUPIL: In our homes.

TEACHER: Find out how it gets to our home. [*Child tells how water is brought to the house.* . *The distribution of the water through the house is discussed.*]

PART IV

TEACHER: Where did we get this water from? [*Child tells the entire story.*] I wonder if we can draw a picture of it. Take out your study books.[1] [*Teacher draws a diagram on the board, developing each step with the children.*]

[1]Books used for follow-up practice activities conducted in the classroom. See pages 303–305. for discussion of the assignment as a factor in teaching procedure.

If the building is taller than the water level, we must have big tanks on the roof. In that case, they have to pump the water because water will not rise above its own level. Let us see if we can go through the whole story of how our city supplies us with water.

Interpretative questions and suggestions.—1. What was the purpose of the preliminary questions? Why did the teacher think it was necessary to use the blackboard? 2. Note the definiteness of Part II 3. How did the teacher encourage careful reading? Of what value was the term *sign posts*? Was it better than the words *clues* and *secrets*? Why? 4. Note, in Part III the attention given the physical side of reading. Why? How? 5. In what way did the teacher test silent reading? How did oral reading assist? 6. Note how the teacher handled the mispronunciation of the word *relied*. 7. How did the teacher have the children learn the distance between Croton and New York? In what other ways might this have been done? 8. Note the continuing use of the black board. To what purpose? 9. Note the use of the map. To what purpose? 10 What was the aim in Part IV? How was it accomplished? 11. To what extent were the following exemplified in this lesson: objective teaching, socialization of the period, pupil self-activity?

Silent reading in studying hygiene.—It is but trite to say that one of the most important of present-day school subjects is hygiene. To understand and practise its laws is of obviously vital consequence to the community. The teacher appreciates the fact that a child cannot be said to benefit by his study of such a subject unless he is able to make it function in his own life and in that of others. Reading a hygiene textbook is, therefore, of little value if

its ideas are merely memorized or viewed in the light of theories. It is thus good sense as well as good pedagogical method to make sure, first, that pupils have grasped the major thoughts of the selection on hygiene, and, second, that they are able to attack and solve such practical problems as are suggested in what they have read. An illustration follows:

THE STORY: "Guarding against Disease"[1]

THE LESSON

Aim: To give pupils a practical realization (1) of the necessity of fighting disease, and (2) of the way they may assist.

Teacher's preparation: (1) Careful study of the community in which the school is located so that during discussion with class she may draw illustrations, at once clear and to the point; (2) Preparation of (a) questions to bring out the thought, and (b) problems for pupils to solve.

Pupils' preparation: (1) To look at milk-bottle label and copy it for report in class; (2) To find out the meaning and pronunciation of *bacteria, centimeter, Fahrenheit, pasteurize* from large dictionary, hygiene text, encyclopedia, or other convenient, reliable source.

Motivation: A brief, well-told story of how sickness comes, and a brief, vivid statement of its results.

Illustrative material: Graphs or charts which may be obtained through a state or city health department, or through the federal bureau of child welfare of the Public Health Service.

Procedure

Oral discussion of the graphs and charts, if these are at hand.

Silent reading to find answers to the following questions:

1. What are the "three gateways" to disease?
2. How are city dwellers assured of good milk?
3. What is meant by pasteurization?

[1]From *Physiology and Hygiene, Book Two,* by EMERSON and BETTS, pages 227–233.

4. What dangers should be avoided?
5. What six rules should be followed?

Oral discussion of answers, including oral reading to justify them.

Practical problems for class activity, and group or individual activities.

Class activity: Discussion of plans for a "health-guarding campaign", emphasizing the main points made in the selection. The several details of the plan thus sketched will be worked out in

Group activities: (1) making appropriate posters; (2) framing suitable slogans; (3) preparing a class program to include original written compositions and two-minute talks upon related topics; (4) reporting a chat with milk-dealers; (5) collecting advertising matter from "keep-clean" devices; (6) arranging a "Health Pageant", the pupils bearing appropriate names and perhaps wearing appropriate garbs.

An alternative to the question-answer method for stimulating silent reading may be a procedure to teach, for example, organization of ideas through the making of an informational outline. Possibly, four or five main divisions may be indicated, if it is a normal fourth- or fifth-grade class or four or five main divisions with two or three subdivisions, if it is a bright fifth- or normal sixth-grade class.

Silent reading in studying literature.—It is easily possible—and it is a great pity—to treat literature wholly from the standpoint of mere superficial recreatory reading. Bacon's famous words about the different kinds of reading are still pertinent, and among them, you will remember, are these: "Some books are to be chewed and digested." There need be no departure from the foundation purposes of teaching literature, namely, to acquaint the pupil with a sane view of life as seen through the words of masters

of experience and expression; to enable him to perceive beauty in and through language; to help him have vicarious enjoyment of life through good books; and to pass his leisure time not only pleasurably but profitably. Indeed, if carried through in the proper spirit these ideals should be fostered in work-type as in recreatory reading.

The following lesson was given to a class of upper fifth-year girls of average intelligence. There were 70 normal school students observing. *The Study Readers*[1] for the fifth year were used.

THE STORY: Chapter I of "The Young Artist, Benjamin West"

Time: 9 A. M. *Duration:* 20 minutes

THE LESSON

PART I

TEACHER: Before we begin I am going to say "Good Morning" to you. We always say "Good Morning" when we meet each other in the morning for the first time, do we not? Here are some books. Have you seen them before?

PUPILS: No.

TEACHER: We are going to use them this morning. Have you ever read to see how many words you can read in a minute? [*Some children say they have, and some say they haven't.*] Well, we are going to do that this morning. I am going to ask you to turn to page 67. What is the story that we are going to read?

PUPILS: "The Young Artist."

TEACHER: Let's read together. [*Teacher reads the introduction to the story,* "The Young Artist," *aloud, while the children are reading it silently.*] Now, what are we going to find out about this boy?

PUPIL: What he did.

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[1]By ALBERTA WALKER and MARY R. PARKMAN, and published by the Charles E. Merrill Company.

TEACHER: Maybe you know of some little boy six years old who can draw very well. Maybe you know of some little girl six years old who can draw pictures. What do you suppose this little boy did? . How can we find out?

PUPIL: Read the story.

TEACHER: There are about how many words in this story?

PUPIL: Nine hundred and thirty. [*Child reads the number.*]

TEACHER: How long should we take to read this story?

PUPIL: Five minutes. [*Child reads this.*]

TEACHER: If we can read this story in five minutes, how many words are we going to read per minute?

PUPIL: One hundred and eighty-six.

TEACHER: Now, let's see how much you can read in five minutes. . . What are you going to find out?

PUPIL: What the man did.

TEACHER: When you finish the first story put your books on the left hand corner of your desk. How many understand? [*Teacher gives them the signal to begin. As the children finish, the teacher has them stand in front of the room. When five minutes are up, the teacher tells the children who are seated to close their books.*]

PART II

TEACHER: I want you to look at these girls [*designating those who are standing in front of the room.*] All of these girls finished this story in less than five minutes. That shows that they are rapid readers. Five minutes is the time for the average fifth-year class to read this story. [*Teacher tells those who are seated that they are to strive to set their own records.*]

PART III

TEACHER: Now, who will tell me what we were reading for?

PUPIL: To find out what Benjamin West did.

[*Teacher passes out tests for comprehension.*]

TEACHER: Open your books to page 71. You will find seventeen questions there. On your paper there are seventeen numbers. Put the answer for each question after the number which appears on your paper for that question. Answer with one or two words the questions which appear in your books. Now, let me

see if you can answer these questions as quickly as you read the story. As soon as you are finished, bring your papers to me. [*Children are given seven minutes to answer questions.*]

[NOTE.—Upon examination of the papers it was found that the two children who had received the highest marks in comprehension were the two who had finished reading the story in less than five minutes, one having finished in three and one-half minutes, the other in four.]

Interpretative questions and suggestions.—1. Note the grade, the intelligence of the pupils, the time of day, and the length of the lesson. What is the significance of each of these four factors? 2. What was the teacher's purpose in asking her opening questions? 3. Would it have been wiser to let one of the children read the introduction aloud? Why? What was gained by the teacher's reading it? 4. What problem did the teacher set in Part I? Analyze this problem into its two essential parts. 5. To what extent can you justify the teacher's remarks in Part II—in praise of the girls who finished within the time set? Do you see a possible error in her judgment? 6. Note the means used to motivate the rate of reading. What two norms did the teacher set up? 7. What problem was suggested in Part III? What means did the teacher use to test the children's comprehension? What time limit was set? 8. What result is mentioned? 9. In what other ways may comprehension be improved?

Silent reading for memorization.—Following are (a) a somewhat enlarged report of a lesson in memorization of a poem with a fifth-year class of boys none too bright; and (b) a suggested procedure in the memorization of a prose selection. It is not intended that these, any more than other lesson reports or plans, should be considered as the

only ways in which to motivate or to teach memorization. In all teaching situations, we know, each teacher must study her class and the individual capabilities of her pupils.

Simple tests of any one's devising will readily reveal the pupil-level of memorization achievement. Besides, the teacher should always keep in mind the well-established laws of memory. Briefly, in terms of teaching memorization of literary matter, these may be thus stated—though it may not be necessary to put all of them to service on every occasion:

1. Select the poem or prose passage with great care that it be interesting and that it have lasting value for the learners.
2. Motivate the memorization.
3. Have the selection expressively read.
4. Make certain that the meaning of the whole and, at least, of the major parts be well understood.
5. Have children study the piece silently, trying to recall as much of it as possible at one time.
6. Fix divisional thought-wholes through adequate, worth-while, and well-motivated practice including frequent and cumulative repetition.
7. Have the selection re-read orally to help fix the sequence of the divisional thought-wholes.
8. Have the selection written out from memory.

THE POEM: "Abou Ben Adhem," by Leigh Hunt

THE LESSON[1]

1. *Motivation:* The teacher starts the lesson with a promise that a hockey game is to be played. The children are told that

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[1]I am indebted to Miss Weber of the Practice School of the New York Training School for Teachers for the use of this lesson procedure.

they are to use their memory for hockey sticks and the poem for the "puck."

2. *Reading by teacher:* The whole poem is read aloud with expression by the teacher without interruption.

3. *Discussion:* The meaning of the whole poem and of its several important parts is considered in free and open discussion.

4. *Reading by class:* The class is instructed to read the poem silently several times, trying at each reading to remember as much as possible.

5. *Questions:* The teacher asks a few general questions which the children are to answer in the words of the author.

EXAMPLES

Question: "And saw—where?"
Answer: "Within the moonlight of his room."
Question: "What?"
Answer: "An angel."
Question: "Doing what?"
Answer: "Writing in a book of gold."

By means of such answers the children memorize the important parts of the poem though they may not be aware of the fact. By demanding the exact words of the author, the teacher soon obliges the children to ask to have the poem re-read. This gives the opportunity for a second reading of the poem and comment upon difficult passages or words.

6. *Drill:* (a) A chart such as the following for the first three lines, with a few key words, may then be placed before the class.

Abou Ben Adhem

——— —— ——— (— — *tribe* ———)
Awoke — ——— ——— — deep dream of —
— saw ——— — ———— — — room

The children try to fill in the blanks. This they do at first with the aid of the teacher who a little later asks the group to help her fill in the blanks. She now purposely fades out of the lesson. The children start to do it all themselves. The teacher calls upon a few pupils to come out on the ice to practise. They re-

cite the poem to her, and she grants goals for the perfect lines.

(b) *Game:* Twelve pupils are selected, six for each side. Each one is presented with a hockey stick. The puck is placed on the chart. The children choose sides. The players are numbered: Number One is goal keeper. Number Six on the opposing team takes the puck and moves it towards his goal. Number Five then proceeds. When a goal is made the puck is brought back to center. By the time all have recited the other members of the class will be ready to try. The teacher may allow the timid children individual practice. By the use of a blackboard sketch of the characters and events as they occur, the teacher helps the children fix the poem in their minds. Such a sketch and the game itself are illustrations of the intrinsic device[1] in teaching procedure.

THE STORY:[2] "Eulogy on a Dog," by George G. Vest

Summary of the story.—This eulogy begins as an address to a jury and details the kinds of friendship that a man may enjoy in a lifetime. In one way or another each of these friends—relatives, money, reputation, and what not—may quit his side, all, that is, except his dog. In good times and evil times, in fair weather and foul, the dog alone remains faithful. No matter what the conditions, he may be relied upon to do his part honorably and well.

THE LESSON

Introduce the study by questions of this sort: What is the title of this selection? (A eulogy is a speech of praise or commendation.) What services have dogs rendered that entitle them to a eulogy? Why does the writer of the eulogy begin it as he does?

Familiarize the class with the text and the thought sequence by study conducted as follows: Have the class read in order the sentences of a paragraph, writing on the board the key words of each. Then take each key word in turn and ask the class to read what is said about it, having them read the entire sentence

[1]The intrinsic device is defined and further illustrated on pages 117 and 139.

[2]See the teacher's manual of *Story Hour Readings—Fifth Year.*

in answer. After this study, have the paragraph as a whole re-read orally. The following key words are suggested:

Paragraph I

1. friend enemy
2. son or daughter ungrateful
3. nearest and dearest traitors
4. money lose
5. flies needs it most
6. reputation ill-considered action
7. people honor success malice failure
8. absolutely unselfish friend never deserts ungrateful

Paragraph II

1. prosperity and poverty health and sickness
2. sleep wintry winds snow drives fiercely
3. kiss lick roughness

Paragraph III

1. desert remains
2. riches reputation constant
3. fortune outcast privilege accompanying guard fight
4. last scene pursue alert watchfulness faithful and true

Make clear to the class that a eulogy is meant to be spoken, and suggest that they try to read this one as they would speak it if they were eulogizing a dog that was a real friend.

After several readings have the class see how much they can repeat, and continue the study in the usual way.

Pronounce with the class: *eulogy, jury, traitors, reputation, sacrificed, pauper.*

Silent reading for organization and reproduction.—It is frequently desirable to be able to recall and to reproduce material that has been read. In order to reproduce material an analytical study of it is necessary. The following

reading lesson was planned to teach analysis for reproduction. Note that the study is motivated by an actual situation, not a make-believe one.

THE STORY: "A Narrow Escape"[1]

Summary of the story.—The scene of this tale is in the forests of Germany, four hundred years ago. Gerard, a Dutch lad, is on his way to Italy, and has fallen in with Denys, a soldier. As they journey together, it chances one morning that they shoot a bear cub with a crossbow, and then proceed along the path, Gerard carrying the crossbow and Denys the dead cub.

THE LESSON

This lesson was given to a class of 6 A girls of average intelligence.

Time: 11 A. M. *Duration:* 45 minutes

PART I

TEACHER: How many of you have younger brothers or sisters? [*Several hands are raised.*] Do they ever ask you to tell them a story?

PUPILS: Lots of times. . . Every day, pretty nearly.

TEACHER: All right. Now I have found a story which I am going to ask you to read to find out if it is a good story to tell some one else. I am going to ask you to read it silently. What do I mean by that?

PUPILS: Read to ourselves. Read inside of us. . Read without any noise.

TEACHER: Yes, I mean that our lips and our heads do not move at all. Only our eyes move. . We are going to read quickly so that we get finished in time. . . What else do we have to watch out for when we read quickly?

PUPIL: That we know what we are reading about.

TEACHER: Yes, that we get the thought. What do we have to watch about the position of our books?

[1]See *Sixth Year Language Reader* by FRANKLIN T. BAKER, GEORGE R. CARPENTER, and JENNIE F. OWENS, pages 137–143.

PUPIL: That it should be at an angle.

TEACHER: And when we turn our pages?

PUPIL: [*After several other children have given the wrong answer.*] Take it from the top right hand corner and turn it.

TEACHER: Yes. Now I am going to tell you the name of the story. . . How are you going to find the page?

PUPILS: Look through the book until you come to that story. . Look it up in the table of contents.

TEACHER: Yes, look at the place where it says, "Contents," or "Table of Contents," until you find that story and the page on which it begins, and then find that page. Take out your *Sixth Year Language Reader.* Now, watch me. [*Teacher writes on the blackboard:* "A Narrow Escape."] What is the name of the story?

PUPIL: "A Narrow Escape."

TEACHER: As soon as you find out on what page this story is, turn directly to that page and let me see if you remember about the position of the book and about the lips and the head being still. As we are reading, remember we are reading to find out whether it would be a good story to tell some one else. Ready, begin!

PART II

[NOTE: As the children are reading, the teacher watches their actions. She makes several corrections. She tells one child to hold the book at a better angle, another not to use her finger because that would stop her going very fast, another not to move her lips as that makes the reading slower. All remarks are made unobtrusively.]

TEACHER: When you are finished, look up at me. I see three persons in one line ready. Girls, some of you move your lips as you read, and that hinders you from going fast. See if you can keep your lips tight shut and try to make your eye take in a large amount of the line at one time. Ready, time! [*The children had been given about eight minutes to read the story. All but five children read it in that time. Teacher calls attention to this and points out the reasons for these children failing to read more quickly.*

In one case the reason was that one child was playing with her tie while she was reading. The teacher points out the importance of attending to one thing at a time.]

PART III

TEACHER: How many think it would make a very good story to tell some one else? [*All of the children think it would.*]

TEACHER: Why do you think so?

PUPIL: It is very interesting and it kind of scares you.

TEACHER: What makes it interesting? [*Child describes the approach of the bear.*]

TEACHER: How does it make you feel?

PUPIL: Excited. [*Teacher writes the word "exciting" on the blackboard.*]

TEACHER: What would help us build a good imaginative picture of this story?

PUPIL: By imagining it.

TEACHER: Can you imagine the whole thing at once? [*Teacher develops the idea that we have to break the story up into parts and make an outline of the events.*]

TEACHER: How many children would like to make an outline? [*Many show a desire to do this.*] First of all we need the title. What is the title?

PUPIL: "A Narrow Escape."

TEACHER: What two persons do we find at the very beginning?

PUPIL: Denys and Gerard.

TEACHER: Who were they? [*Children respond correctly to this question.*] Where did we first find them?

PUPIL: At the top of the story in small print.

TEACHER [*doubtfully*]: We found these two persons at the top of the page in small print?

PUPILS: We found them in the woods.

TEACHER: What are they doing in the woods?

PUPIL: Walking. [*Teacher writes:* "1. Denys, the soldier, and Gerard, the Dutch lad, are walking through the woods."]

TEACHER: What other things do you think we ought to bring into the picture to make it a living picture? We need something

that will help bring us on to the next part of the story. [*Children suggest several answers. The teacher brings out the point that we must choose the important facts.*]

TEACHER: What is the next thing which enters into the lesson?

PUPILS: The bear. [*Teacher finally leads up to the next logical step in the story and gets from the children the following sentence:* "From the background a huge beast, perhaps a bear, is following the two men." *The teacher then writes on the blackboard:* "2. From the background a huge beast, perhaps a bear."]

TEACHER: Why can I say, "perhaps a bear"?

PUPIL: Beacuse they are carrying a bear cub. [*This bear cub has been previously mentioned in the discussion.* . . *Teacher finishes the above statement on the blackboard, writing,* "is following the two men."]

TEACHER: Now, let us see. When they discover who and what it is how do they feel?

PUPIL: They are scared.

TEACHER: Do they recognize the animal?

PUPIL: Yes.

TEACHER: What does Denys whisper?

PUPIL: "The cub."

TEACHER: And the minute he says that, what do we all know and what may these two men expect?

PUPIL: Death.

TEACHER: Now, what is the first thing they did?

PUPIL: They dropped the cub.

TEACHER: Then, what did they do? [*Child describes their next action. The teacher questions the children very carefully to see whether they remember the details of the story. She often asks them to verify their answers by referring to the book.*]

TEACHER: Who can think of a good word which would show the action that they took?

PUPIL: "Flew."

TEACHER: Did you ever hear of the word *scrambled*?

PUPIL: Yes.

TEACHER: They scrambled. They almost fell as they went along. [*Teacher writes the following on the board from the children's dictation:* "3. The two scrambled toward the trees for

safety." *Teacher asks children to read silently the part which describes the actions of the bear.*]

TEACHER: Who is the first one to be attacked?

PUPILS: Gerard . Denys.

TEACHER: Prove which one is right by finding the place in the book. [*Children find the part in their books that tells which one the bear pursued first.*]

TEACHER: Now, who can give us the fourth part? [*Several children make suggestions, but they do not bring out important parts of the story. Teacher brings out the point that only the important parts must be listed as the story must be short in order to make it exciting and interesting. Children finally suggest the following, which the teacher writes on the blackboard:* "4. Denys is very closely followed by the—" *Children suggest* "huge", "colossal", "furious", "outrageous", *and the teacher continues to write the sentence on the blackboard, writing* "furious bear."]

TEACHER: What else do we need? If we know some human being is being chased by a furious animal, what do you think it is going to mean?

PUPILS: Death. Denys also thought it was going to mean death.

TEACHER: Yes. What is a word for "thought it was"?

PUPIL: "Expected."

TEACHER: Put it in a sentence.

PUPIL: "Denys expected death."

TEACHER: Now, who is going to finish the sentence to relieve us? [*Child suggests the following which the teacher writes on the board:* "5. Denys expected death, but Gerard saved him."]

TEACHER: Now, if you were telling this story, how would you tell this part in order to make the story more exciting?

PUPIL: Slowly. [*Teacher brings out the importance of using conversation and expressive words, such as* "shrieked".]

TEACHER: But, now, what is the sixth part?

PUPIL: The bear goes after Gerard.

TEACHER: How can we frame that? [*Pupil suggests the following which the teacher writes on the board:* "6. Bear comes tearing after Gerard."]

TEACHER: Now, I am going to ask you to finish this sentence, describing how Gerard felt.

PUPIL: Gerard is horrified.

TEACHER: Another word. He is more than horrified. [*Teacher refers children to the book for words. All of the children read silently, and then one child reads orally the passage that has many adjectives describing Gerard. One child suggests the word* "paralyzed." . . . *Teacher finishes writing,* "who appears to be paralyzed with fear".]

TEACHER: Do you think he expects death?

PUPIL: Yes.

TEACHER: How does he await death? On page 143 we find a description of Gerard's feelings. [*Pupil reads the description of Gerard's feelings, and teacher elaborates upon this description, bringing about a feeling of great suspense in the children.*]

TEACHER: Now, what is a good sentence for number 7? [*Several children make suggestions, using sentences which, in some cases, are too long, and which, in other cases, include an unimportant element in the story. Finally, however, with the teacher's help, the following sentence is decided upon:* "7. Gerard gives up all hope of life when suddenly Denys shoots the bear and saves his young friend." *The teacher writes this on the blackboard.*]

TEACHER: What can we suggest for the end of the story? [*Children suggest several sentences, as a result of silent reading.*] Who wants to read the very last sentence from the book? [*One child reads* "The ponderous carcass rent the claws out of the bough; then pounded the earth with a tremendous thump", *and the teacher describes the meaning of certain words, such as* "ponderous", "carcass", "tremendous."] 8. Death overtakes the bear instead of Denys and Gerard. [*Teacher then writes No. 8 on blackboard.*]

TEACHER: Now, who wants to read the whole thing through? Some one who hasn't been working very hard. Remember this is only an outline. We will have to put something else in. [*Child reads only what is on the board.*]

PART IV

TEACHER: Now, I am going to ask you to do this. I am going to look for the girl who can tell this story best. We will divide our class into rows. Each row will work as a unit and

work up a good story. What will we need to help make this story interesting, besides this outline? [*Children suggest the use of colorful words which describe the people and the events.*]

TEACHER: We are going to write this story following the same rules as we have for writing compositions.

Teacher has a chart which gives the following rules:

1. Make every opening sentence interesting.
2. Vary the first sentence of each paragraph.
3. Watch the length of your sentences.
4. Choose your words carefully.
5. Make every closing sentence interesting.

Teacher goes over these rules with the children.

Interpretative questions and suggestions.—1. Note grade of class, sex, and intelligence of children, time of day, and duration of period. 2. How did the teacher prepare for this lesson? In what other ways might she have done so? 3. Note attention paid to certain habits of posture, etc. 4. What did the teacher do while the children were reading? 5. What is the teacher's aim in Part III? How did she carry it out? In what other ways might this part of the procedure have been conducted? 6. How did the teacher relate oral reading to silent reading? Composition to reading?[1] 7. To what extent does this lesson encourage correct usage of words? To what degree is this element merely incidental to the procedure? Was it carefully planned? Explain. 8. Criticise the conclusion, favorably or unfavorably, with reasons. 9. Note the assignment.[2] Would it have been better to omit it? Why? Would it have been better to have it done in school or at home? Why? What other form of assignment can you suggest for this particular lesson?

[1]See pages 418–421.

[2]See discussion of assignments, pages 303–305.

Silent reading for recreation.—Reading for pure enjoyment, for the enrichment of leisure hours, should not be neglected during any portion of the school course—and particularly not in the period of extensive silent reading.

Throughout the middle grades recreatory reading should become freer and freer, and within reasonable limits, more and more unrestricted. That is to say, the pupil should be permitted greater and greater freedom of choice with only general guidance tactfully and wisely given. Such reading is of the very essence of recreation. Stories, poems, travel narratives, scientific articles, history, and biography come under this head—in fact, all printed matter that may properly pass the leisure hour in a library or at home. The teacher has an unquestionable opportunity here. Well-directed outside reading of comparatively easy matter will not only serve recreatory purposes but also, as has been already remarked, tend to higher speed and, keeping pace with rapidly broadening experience, lead to better comprehension as well.

A well-ordered classroom bookshelf will frequently be the beginning of ever-widening reading habits. Many schools make special provision for a library reading period when the pupils freely exercise their choice, the teacher acting in the capacity of a friendly, helpful guide, and both teacher and pupil enjoying a free exchange of ideas upon books and reading. It will be well to check up such recreatory reading in a systematic though not too restrictive fashion. Frequent encouragement should be given pupils to bring in simple, brief, but honestly expressed reports upon their personal reactions. The quality of class discussion upon the merits and demerits of this book or that article will gain immeasurably from these reports.

A simple individual record of a pupil's reading of books and periodicals might take such a form as the following, a separate card or book-page serving the purpose in view:

Name of Pupil.		.Age.		.Class.	
No.	*Date*	*Title*	*Author*	*Specially interesting parts*	*Why I would recommend it to a friend*
1	BEGUN				
	FINISHED				
2					

Figure 5. A Simple Form for Individual Pupil's Reading Record

Review.—The time devoted to silent reading and oral reading will vary according to circumstances. Both should be found in every middle grade, with silent reading more prominent as the classes advance. Silent reading may be an important form of study and should play a large part in the learning process not only of literature but of arithmetic, geography, history, and all other subjects as well. Silent reading may also play a most important part in the recreatory life of the pupils. It will be borne in mind that in teaching silent reading, as in teaching oral reading, there should be specific purposes to be achieved.

STUDY PROBLEMS

A. Discussion Topics

1. Criticise these objectives. (The lesson theme was "Joan of Arc"; the class, of the fourth year.)

> By the end of the silent reading lesson it seemed to me the children had learned what to look for and expect in a good piece of literature, such as: beauty of thought, beauty of diction, illustration of some universal truth, etc. They had come to know the value of possessing courage in daily life and at critical moments in a nation's history.

2. Criticise this report, indicating wherein you believe the procedure was correct, wherein at fault, and how it might have been improved.

> The history of the sixth year class I taught was a poor one owing to neglect on the part of a previous teacher. My aim in the lesson was to read the story for entertainment, appreciation, and understanding. I wished to test the comprehension in both oral and silent reading. Thus, part of the story was read silently and the remainder aloud. The test of comprehension consisted of answering questions which were written on the board while the class was reading silently. Pictures were used to bring before the class the figure of Abraham Lincoln who was the hero of the selection. The story was well understood and enjoyed by the class as a whole. I think the silent reading was better than the oral.

3. Explain in what respects your procedure would have been similar to or unlike that which is outlined in the following report:

> The lesson given was a silent reading one. It was given to a 5B class which had been under substitutes since the beginning of the term and was a subnormal class in various respects including mental ability. The story given was, "George Washington and the Colt", taken from the *Fifth Year Lincoln Reader*. The aim of the lesson, while it may not have been adequate for a regular 5B class, was appro-

priate in this case. It was to have the boys comprehend the story and read accurately. The illustrative material should have consisted of a picture of Washington and the colt, but it was lacking. Had the picture been there the boys would have been more interested. The procedure was psychological for it called for some of the child's information (apperceptive basis) in the motivation given to the lesson. The lesson proceeded with the boys reading the entire story (one and a half pages) and responding to questions asked after a synopsis of the story had been given. Perhaps if the story had been dramatized it would have "gone over" better. There was no assignment. The result showed itself in the boys promising to tell the truth at all times no matter what the punishment.

4. To what extent could the teacher of the following lesson plan justify it in the light of present-day principles of teaching reading? Suggest how it might be improved.

Selection: "Earthquakes and Volcanoes" *Class:* 5B–1
Aims: To acquaint children with earthquakes and volcanoes and the effects produced on man.
Illustrative material: Book of pictures called, *Records of the Ruins of Pompeii.*
Procedure:

When you studied about the earth, you learned that the outside was cooled sufficiently for man to live on it while the inside was a burning mass continually moving.

What is the result of this internal movement?
What do we call a movement of the land?
What is a volcano?

Children read silently the first page to give them more information.
Children read orally.

What is the cause of a volcano?

Children read the next two pages silently and then orally.

What is the largest volcano in the world? What happened many years ago when this volcano erupted?

Pass book with pictures of the ruins of Pompeii.
Do you recall any earthquake within the past two years?
In what country was it? What were the results?
Tell of personal experience with earthquake in Long Branch, N. J.

5. After observing a fourth-year reading lesson (based upon the poem, "September," in the *Horace Mann Third Reader*) a student-teacher wrote these brief notes:

> 1. Picture-study conversation on what picture shows. 2. Silent reading of text. 3. Thought of selection elicited by having children tell in their own words (a) what the story is about, and (b) what picture is presented in each stanza.

To what extent does this report include essential points of correct procedure?

6. A student-teacher reports the main points in an observed fourth-year reading lesson as follows:

> a. Poem: "The Boy Who Hated Trees," in *Progressive Road to Reading—Fourth Reader.* b. Class was told of good silent reading habits. c. Class opened to poem and read silently, under time limits. d. Class closed books, teacher questioned pupils. e. Class listed number of characters in story for dramatization, picking out pupils for parts. f. Story dramatized. g. Individual read poem. h. Assignment: To write a composition, pretending you are one of the trees in the story.

To what extent do these notes include essential points of correct procedure?

7. Rank the following assignments[1] as good, fair, poor:

a. "The story you have just read about zebras is to be re-read at home and an outline brought in tomorrow."
b. "Draw a picture of the person you impersonated in the reading of this story."
c. "Write a composition on 'How I Spend a Rainy Day'." (This followed a reading of "A Rainy Day Game".)

[1]See note on assignments, pages 303–305.

d. "The children were told to read the story again at home and be ready, if called upon, to tell the story in their own words."
e. "At the next lesson we are going to take the same picture but instead of reading about it we are going to write about it."
f. "The teacher saw that some of the pupils did not understand the story ("Japan—A Fairyland of Flowers") so she told the class to read it over for homework. She gave them a few questions to answer. She also told them to stop at a florist's and try to see some of the flowers mentioned."

8. Be prepared to explain the worth of the following conclusions[1] to reading lessons:

a. "Ask for the moral or what the children learned from the story."
b. "At the end of lesson have children give summary of what they have read."
c. "Test results of silent reading by oral reading of answers to questions written on board."
d. "When time is called pupils place a mark near the last word read. Then compute number of words read in one minute."
e. "Allow children, who have displayed ability to read and understand, to dramatize the story."
f. "Have children memorize the stanza they like best."
g. "Have children compare the boy in the story with other characters they have read about."
h. "Emphasize the two or three most important points."
i. "Have children discuss the pro and the con of the question raised by the author."
j. "Have best reader re-read poem aloud before the class."

B. Group Research Topics

1. A study of the middle-grade readers of any three, or five, present day systems. Chart the proportion of pages devoted to

[1]See note on conclusions, pages 301–303.

(a) imaginative material, such as poetry, fiction, drama; and (b) factual material, such as useful information about common things of daily life, travel, and history.

2. A study of the teachers' manuals or other lesson-helps, in any five, or six, available modern systems. Chart or otherwise list any practical, useful hints supplementary to those that have been treated in this book.

3. Three typical lesson plans for silent reading of literature, geography, nature, or history for any class of normal middle grade children.

4. A class project: A textbook of selections suitable for silent reading for any one of the middle grades.

5. A report upon the project method of teaching reading of any one of the middle-grade subjects. Consult such a book as any one of the following: J. F. Hosic and S. E. Chase's *A Brief Guide to the Project Method;* J. F. Stevenson's *The Project Method of Teaching;* C. A. McMurry's *Teaching by Projects;* or E. Collings's *An Experiment with a Project Curriculum.*

C. Individual Research Topics

1. A report upon directed study. Consult such a book as H. L. Miller's *Directing Study.*

2. "The amount of time given to silent reading during the class period should increase from grade to grade"—Page 4 *Rural School Leaflet,* No. 35, of the Federal Bureau of Education. A study of several modern texts may be made, charting the opinions therein expressed.

3. "The teaching of reading should have as one of its aims improvement in study habits." *Ibid.,* page 4. Consult several of the authorities cited in this book and be prepared to report in class upon the specific study habits required by some one school subject.

4. A brief résumé of "Period of Enriched Experience", pages 108–122, *Twenty-Fourth Yearbook.*

5. A student-teacher reports as follows:

> One author says that oral reading should be given equal rank with silent reading in the elementary school. I think the benefits derived from oral reading, which this writer gives as his reason, namely, expression, articulation, proof

> of mastery of symbols, and the like, are less important than quickly extracting the thought from printed material. Silent reading would give much more practice in this line and should therefore be stressed to a greater extent than oral reading.

Verify or refute this author's reported position. Look up two or three authorities upon the matter stressed in this quotation and be ready to report in class upon your findings.

6. Rank the following reported procedures in the order of their practical value for a young teacher. Defend or reject any statement you may find in one or the other of these four reports:

a. In observing one of the lessons in the —— School I found that to find out the characteristics of Theodore Roosevelt the children read the letters of this man to his children. The definite problem—to find out the man's characteristics—had been set. The solving of the problem was done by means of the pupils' independent silent reading of the letters.

b. A 6B class had to give a program in the assembly. Miss —— said that as they were so much interested in the subject of pottery, they should use that for their subject. The children then proceeded to collect data. The reading this time was clearly extensive. They had to choose data with the problem in mind. They had to pass by some facts, swallow others, and digest some. They had to weigh and judge facts.

c. In the presentation of the lesson the child and the teacher should both take part. In the actual procedure, the child is the dominant factor; he should read the selection to get the central thought, and should re-read it in order to answer and ask certain thought questions. The teacher should not be too dominant. Her part ought to be to encourage silent reading by supplying an abundance of contextual material, and presenting the lesson in the proper, logical way.

d. I spent days wondering how I was to teach the children to read a passage silently. In the end I found that my duty was only to prepare questions of interest

that would arouse the curiosity of the children and, after having given a period for silent reading, to go over the selection with them and see if I had succeeded.

7. A study of Chapter XV, "Reading and Study in Grades Four, Five, and Six", pages 365–429, G. A. YOAKAM's *Reading and Study: More Effective Study Through Better Reading Habits.*

8. Read Chapter III, "Factors Influencing the Rate of Silent Reading", pages 36–81, J. A. O'BRIEN's *Silent Reading.* Also, Chapter IV, "Training in Rapid Silent Reading."

D. THEME ASSIGNMENTS

1. Strong reasons for present-day emphasis upon silent reading.

2. "Reading is a key subject."—*Rural School Leaflet* No. 35, page 1.

3. "In the teaching of reading, the varied interests of children should be kept in mind."—*Ibid.*, page 6.

4. "Important as are the informational and practical uses of reading, efforts should not be spared to share with pupils, through reading, the world of enjoyment, with its many outdoor as well as indoor opportunities, and the choice classics of the world's literature, which have been found suitable for children." —*Ibid.*, page 6.

5. "The assignment should set a new problem not too difficult, closely integrated with the preceding lesson, and of clear value to the child. Time should be provided for adequate consideration of the assignment in class. There is hardly a better oral-English period than when an oral defense of work done on assignment is called for from the pupils." Explain how this thought may be practically realized in a middle-grade reading program.

6. In what respects the lesson reported as follows was in accordance with sound principles:

> The teacher carried out her aim, comprehension (in teaching the story, "A Rainy Day Game", to fourth-grade children of average intelligence), for from the

beginning to the end of the lesson she had the children read silently and then answer on paper questions pertaining to the lesson. She had the children read answers and then judge which were the best. Again, at the end of the lesson, she had the pupils play the game, following directions they were given in the story.

7. The following criticism was written by a student-teacher who had had not more than a few weeks of practical experience, though she had been an observer of good teaching for a little over a year. To what extent has she touched upon "high points" in lesson-procedure? What other commendable features may be noted in this report?

On the 21st of November I observed a silent reading lesson given to a class of 4B children, the majority of whom were below the average intelligence of children of that grade. The selection for the day's work was taken from the class reader, *Progressive Road to Silent Reading*. The selection may be found on page 86, and is called, "Japan—A Fairyland of Flowers."

The aim of the teacher was to give the class a full appreciation of the flowers of Japan from the reading of the work. From the standpoint of the aim, we may say that the lesson was a success. The class showed that they were fully appreciating the beauty of the flowers, especially the chrysanthemum. If taken from the standpoint of an appreciation lesson, the work was also successful. However, as far as the reading itself was concerned the class could not acquire this appreciation. As they did very poorly and the teacher did not give them enough time to read the selection, they could not have done otherwise.

There was no illustrative material. The teacher could easily have had a few flowers. She might have bought a few chrysanthemums or wistaria and shown them to the class. If she could not get the real thing she could have gotten plenty of pictures of chrysanthemums, wistaria, cherry blossoms, and plum blossoms, which would have interested the class. One good point, however, was to

suggest that the children look in at the florist's shop and ask to see any of these flowers.

The material was well organized. The teacher motivated the lesson by talking of the flower show and immediately aroused the interest of the class. The class then read the story, but because the teacher did not give them enough time all of the class did not finish. Besides, the class did not get the thought from the page. When the teacher asked questions on the text they were unable to answer. Perhaps, if the work had been taken paragraph by paragraph, the thought would have been gotten more easily. Throughout the lesson the class was made to appreciate the work even though the pupils did not get this appreciation from the reading, but from the teacher.

The assignment was appropriate. The teacher saw that the class did not understand the work, so she told them to read it over for homework, and then gave questions to be answered. Also, she told the children to stop at the florist's and try to see some of the flowers mentioned.

8. "I have found that children do not comprehend as easily when they read orally as when they read silently. I have noticed that when teachers try to get the meaning of some selection which has been read orally by means of questions the children go back and read silently in order to be able to answer the teacher's questions."

CHAPTER XIV

PRACTICE PERIODS IN THE MIDDLE GRADES[1]

The main points of this chapter.—Thoroughly integrated with the reading process must be adequate, carefully arranged practice, if understanding and feeling, pleasure and efficiency are to mark the pupil's oral and silent reading efforts. Neglect of such practice will tend to frustrate, or at least to make less fruitful, all the good work of earlier and current teaching.

Practice periods should be carefully prepared, regularly programmed for all pupils, and intimately associated with the reading periods. Four of the most important objectives of these periods will be discussed here, namely: (1) enlarging the pupil's vocabulary; (2) widening the pupil's span of recognition; (3) increasing the pupil's rate of reading; and (4) improving the pupil's comprehension. Other periods will, of course, be arranged for any or all of the needs treated in Parts I and II.

Many of the pupils will still require individual attention. To a degree far greater than an inexperienced middle-grade teacher will probably anticipate, children's physiological and pyschological reactions to this reading situation and to that may be slow or quick, accurate or inaccurate. Testing at the beginning of the term, and from time to time during it, will reveal these variations in reading abilities.

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[1]The student should re-read pages 195–220 of Chapter X, "The Rapid Progress Stage of Beginning Reading—The Third Year."

Remedial measures will thus be required in the form of practice exercises, such as are cited in this and earlier chapters,[1] or prepared through the teacher's own devising. Explanation of standardized and unstandardized, or improvised, tests has already been made in another chapter.[2] Illustration of how to give standard reading tests and how to conduct a remedial measure program is offered later in this chapter.

At the end of the chapter, and the conclusion of the discussion of reading in the middle grades, is a statement of the desirable levels of achievement at the close of the sixth year of reading instruction.

Attaining the Objectives of the Practice Period

Enlarging the pupil's vocabulary.—A regular and well-prepared place should be found for exercises to increase the pupil's word-store. While it is true that a reader develops his vocabulary by wider and wider reading, just as a speaker or a writer gains fluency through greater and greater practice, it is nevertheless necessary for the intermediate-grade teacher to provide definitely arranged periods for special vocabulary study. As far as practicable these vocabulary lessons will, of course, be closely integrated with the needs presented by the reading matter of the grade, in literature, history, geography, and other subjects. Exercises to this end are at least equal in importance to such matters as the improvement of eyesight, the elimination of lip-movements and poor phrasing, the development of eye-voice span in oral reading, or the increase of eye-span in the growth of silent reading ability.

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[1]See pages 114–116, 133–136, 186–188, 212 ff., and 269–270.

[2]See page 219.

The paragraphs that follow indicate important ways and means whereby the pupil's vocabulary may be enlarged.

1. *Use of dictionary.*[1]—The "dictionary-habit" should become fixed in the middle grades. "A dictionary in every home" would not be an inappropriate slogan. Certainly, one should find a dictionary not only in every classroom but on every pupil's desk as well. But it is of small worth if specific training in its proper use is not a regular part of class work. Words should not be merely "hunted down" for pronunciation; their specific meanings should be determined. The various useful parts of the dictionary should also be made familiar to the pupils. Briefly put, it might almost be said that the wise use of a dictionary is one of the indispensable means to the gradual reading independence of the child. The process of discriminating among the various definitions of the same word is alone invaluable.

One good exercise for interesting pupils in the use of a dictionary, while at the same time facilitating its ready consultation, is the following: Place on the blackboard a number of key words—ten, say—carefully selected from the class textbooks. The pupils are instructed to use both hands in looking up the words—the left hand for words with initials in the first half of the alphabet, the right hand for words with initials in the second half of the alphabet. When a child has found all of the words, he stands and learns the time it has taken him. All who have correctly located the words indicate their scores in terms of seconds elapsed. A careful check-up will guard against the possibility of error.

A variation of this exercise might be as follows: Set a time-limit of, say, a minute or two, for the looking up of a given group of carefully selected words. The pupil's

[1]See pages 188–190.

score will be the number of words he has correctly located within the time-limit.

One of the chief values of such exercises is the stimulus they afford to swifter and more accurate word-recognition.

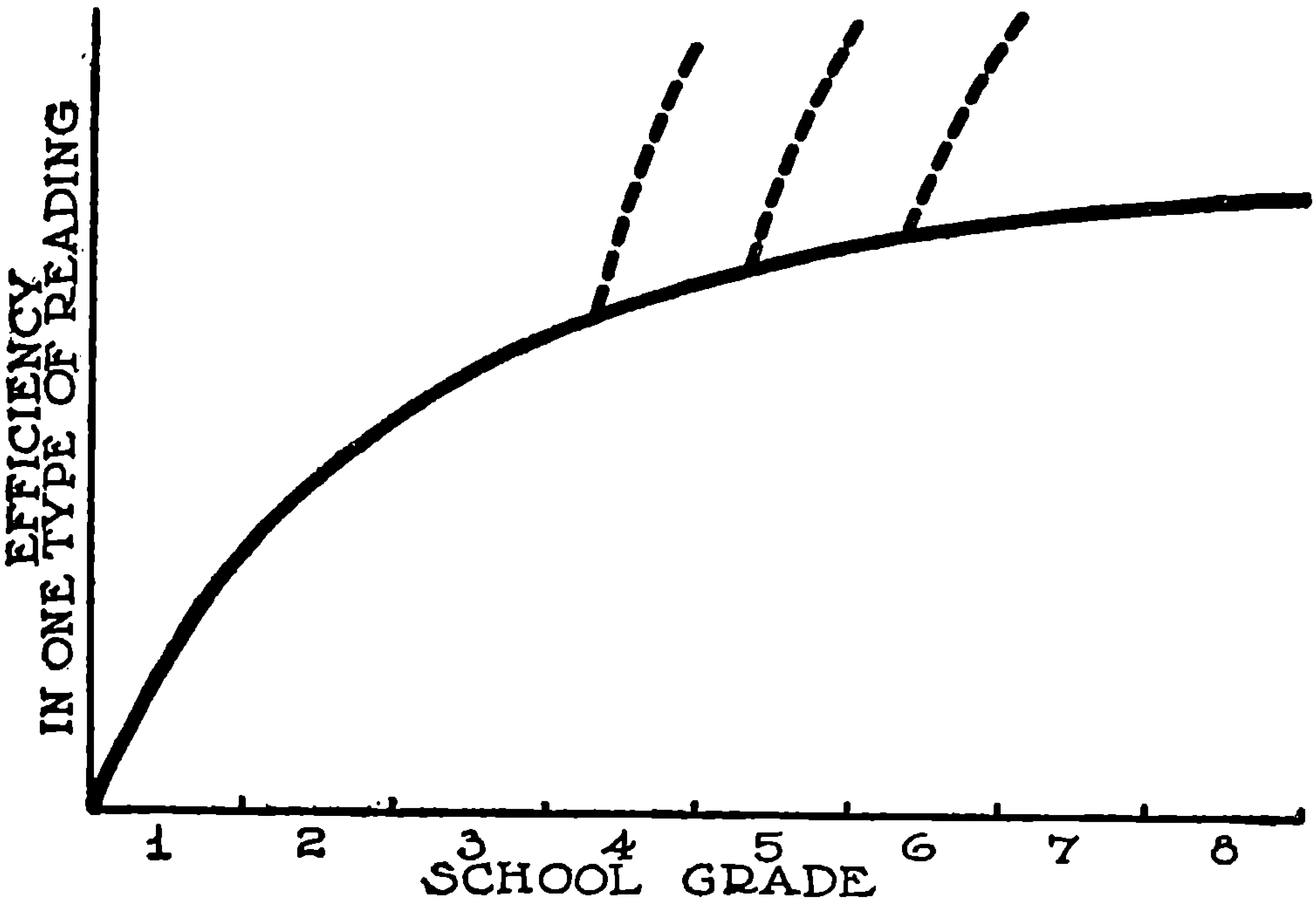

FIGURE 6. INCREASE IN EFFICIENCY IN READING[1]

The solid curve shows the increase in efficiency through the grades as the result of ordinary reading. The dotted curves indicate the rapid increase in efficiency brought about by making efficiency a specific objective of the use of the practice exercise.

2. *Special-word training.*—Words of frequent or specific use should receive particular attention. Words of frequent use may be found in the grade subjects by the teacher herself, or in special lists prepared by such investigators as Professor Edward L. Thorndike[2] and Dr. L. C.

[1]Figure 6 and explanation are reprinted from THORNDIKE and GATES'S *Elementary Principles of Education,* page 259, by permission of The Macmillan Company, publishers.

[2]*The Teacher's Word Book.*

Pressey.[1] If the teacher selects her words from either of these latter sources she should be careful not to make the study formal or unrelated to well-understood, present situations and needs. She should, preferably, use these authorities as guides and checks upon her own selection in her own classroom. Words of specific use may well be words of unusual or puzzling character, such as (a) parts of speech, like *but* or *as* used as a relative pronoun, *save* or *but* used as a preposition; (b) figurative expressions, like *bivouac of life*, *rank and file*, *Eternal City;* (c) technical words, like *equinox*, *complement*, *infectious*, *average*.

3. *Word analysis.*—A wise, informal study of word derivation will prove helpful. Here, again, the teacher should make her work as practical as possible. Prefixes, suffixes, and stems are means to an end and not the end itself. Fruitful exercises, however, may easily be prepared around, for example, such a prefix as *trans*, such a suffix as *able* or *ible*, and such a stem as *fer*, *lat.* A work like Leonard Cox's *General Language* will be found useful in the preparation of exercises in word analysis.

4. *Word classification.*—Exercises may be prepared for classifying words according to similarity or contrast of meaning—synonyms and antonyms. A study of this sort should include not only words but phrases as well.

A student-teacher inquired how she might make word-study interesting to a class of active boys. The answer came through an illustration:

A teacher asked her pupils to name all the words or phrases they could think of, or find, meaning *queer*, or something like it. The result was a comparatively complete list. The teacher then suggested that the class look up the precise meanings of the

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[1] *An Investigation of the Technical Vocabularies of the Public School Subjects.*

words and the original language from which each was derived. Upon discovering the many tongues that had used these words the children were asked if they had learned any especially interesting thing about the people of different lands and times. A number of pupils were readily able to tell. A little humor was thus introduced even into word-study to the advantage of all concerned.

Another illustration of word classification exercises may be seen in a study of the words in such a poem as "The Fountain", by James Russell Lowell. During a separate period following the reading lesson the class may be directed to list in columns all words in the poem, which signify sounds, sights, actions, and human nature characteristics. In parallel columns synonyms may be listed. Substitutions for the poet's choices will prove instructive and interesting.

5. *Individual pupil lists.*—Every pupil should be encouraged not only to keep a list of new words found in the course of his reading but also to use them in oral and written composition, and in conversation. Besides, he should be trained to note their use whenever he meets them in other reading matter. Even in schools where official word lists are studied, individual lists should also be kept.

6. *Word-discussions.*[1]—Conversational periods when "Words and their ways" is the topic will prove not only beneficial but fascinating. Such periods are chiefly helpful in the stimulus they lend to word consciousness—a feeling for word values. A schedule of periods for this purpose might include consideration of changes in pronunciation according to usage—as with words like *frequent*, *invalid*, *refuse*—literal and figurative usage, formal and

[1]A book such as GREENOUGH and KITTREDGE'S *Words and Their Ways in English Speech* will be suggestive.

informal usage, colloquial and literary usage, and technical and non-technical usage.

In illustration of profitable conversation about words let us imagine that the class has been reading "Paul Revere's Ride".[1] Following such a reading—but separate from it—might come a vocabulary period with special attention to word-values. A portion of the poem may be this:

Then he said, "Good night!" and with muffled oar
Silently rowed to the Charlestown shore,
Just as the moon rose over the bay,
Where swinging wide at her moorings lay
The *Somerset*, British man-of-war;
A phantom-ship, with each mast and spar
Across the moon like a prison-bar,
And a huge black hulk, that was magnified
By its own reflection in the tide.

Direct the attention of the class to the sense-impressions created by such words as *muffled*, *silently*, *rose*, *swinging wide*, *phantom-ship*, *prison-bar*, *huge black hulk*, *magnified*, *reflection*. The pupils may then write these words down in column-fashion, placing equivalent expressions in a parallel column. Discussion as to the wisdom of the poet's choice should be fruitful. An appropriate assignment for classroom or home development might be a similar consideration of words in some other portion of the poem; say, the italicized words in the following lines:

Meanwhile, impatient to *mount* and ride,
Booted and *spurred*, with a heavy *stride*
On the opposite shore walked Paul Revere.
Now he *patted* his horse's side,
Now he *gazed* at the landscape far and near,

[1]See pages 76 and 269 for remark upon teaching this and similar poems.

Then, *impetuous*, stamped the earth,
And turned and tightened his saddle-girth;
But mostly he watched with *eager* search
The belfry-tower of the Old North Church,
As it rose above the graves on the hill,
Lonely and *spectral* and *somber* and *still*.
And lo! as he looks, on the belfry's height
A *glimmer*, and then a *gleam* of light!
He *springs* to his saddle, the bridle he turns,
But *lingers* and gazes, till full on his sight
A second lamp in the belfry burns!

7. *Word testing.*—Pupils should not be permitted to read along week after week without some check-up upon their knowledge of the meanings of the words they have been reading. Skimming has its undeniably intelligent uses but skimming over misunderstood or ununderstood words tends to mental slovenliness. The teacher should therefore test her class upon selected words in the reading matter of the grade. Besides this informal testing, use should be made of several recently devised standard vocabulary tests. Among these tests may be mentioned the following: Thorndike's *Improved Scale for Visual Vocabulary and Test of Word Knowledge*, and Gates's *Graded Word Pronunciation Test.*

The teacher will also find true-false, completion, matching, and similar test-forms of great service in vocabulary building in any grade.

8. *Rapid context definitions.*—One authority[1] goes so far as to affirm that "the dictionary is to be used mainly for pronunciation, seldom for definition." Implied in this statement is the development of a context-definition ability in pupils. And it is fundamentally true. As has

[1] *Twenty-Fourth Yearbook*, page 94.

been previously mentioned, a merely casual acquaintance with the dictionary reveals the fact that the definition of a word—such as *refuse*, for example—considered apart from the sentence in which the word stands, its context, that is, may be very misleading. Indeed, its meaning depends upon its context. One important vocabulary-building exercise should therefore be defining words as they appear in the reading selection. The dictionary should be resorted to after a serious, thoughtful effort has been made to discover the meaning through associated words, through the general thought of the sentence or paragraph. In this way the pupils learn to discriminate, to think through words to the ideas they express—the essential reading process. The habit of sensible attack upon an unknown word through study of the context is of inestimable worth.

The following lesson will illustrate one way of teaching "definition through context" in a middle-grade class:

"Jimmy Pratt's Word List"[1]

"What is the acreage of that wheat field, Mr. Pratt?" asked a man from the city who wanted to buy a part of the Pratt farm.

"A little more than twenty," was the reply.

Jimmy Pratt looked up from his book. "What does that mean—acreage?" he asked.

"That is a question you should be ready to answer for yourself, Jim," replied his father. "Use your own wits before turning to somebody else. How do we measure the size of our fields?"

"By the acre, of course," said Jimmy. "Then acreage means the number of acres, because you said there were twenty in that field."

"There are many things that explain themselves if you take

[1]Pages 140–143 of *The Study Readers—Fourth Year*, by WALKER and PARKMAN. Reprinted by permission and courtesy of Charles E. Merrill Company, publishers.

a moment to think them over, Son," said the father, with a nod and a smile as he turned once more to his visitor.

Jimmy went on with his studying. He had been writing down the new words that he found in his lessons for the next day. Now he sat still for a few minutes looking at the list of words before him.

Worthy was the first word. Was there any way he could get that? Perhaps it had something to do with *worth*. A *worthy* speech would be one that had real worth—a good one. Yes, that made sense. Now he understood the meaning of the next word, *seaworthy*. A ship that was not seaworthy was not worth sending on a voyage because it was not fit to stand the dangers of the sea.

Jimmy's eyes sparkled as he went from one word to another. After several of the words he wrote down something which he thought would help him explain the meanings. This is the way his paper looked then:

worthy (worth)
seaworthy (worth sending to sea)
contents—(contain—what something contains or holds)
consideration—(consider—to think about)
indignant
culprit
intention (intend—what one intends or means)
stealthy (steal—sly—A stealthy manner is sly or sneaking.)
imperative
wistful
conviction

You will see that there were six words that Jimmy was able to get for himself by "using his wits"—that is, by thinking and by putting together things that he already knew. Can you tell what word helped him to guess the secret of each of the six words?

The other words on his list Jimmy had to look up in his dictionary. Would you have to look them up, too?

Then Jimmy copied his words in his notebook and wrote after each word a sentence to help him remember how to use it. This is the way his work looked:

imperative—commanding

An imperative sentence gives a command or asks somebody to do something.

culprit—somebody who has done something wrong

I think culprit means somebody who has done a wrong act, not a crime. The person guilty of a crime is a criminal.

Jimmy was almost as proud of his word notebook as he was of the radio set which he had made without any help from any one. "Those words belong to me now," he used to say. "When I get them in my notebook, I have them for keeps!"

9. *"Four lessons a week (10 minutes each) in vocabulary building."*[1]

ASSIGNMENT

The teacher should be supplied with mimeographed copies of her grade list. These she cuts up into assignments of one or two groups totaling not more than 15 words.

The class receives the assignment of words to be learned. One of the following methods is used by children in homework:

a. Children bring in a labeled picture, e.g., an advertisement or illustration cut out of a newspaper or magazine, showing "articles of apparel", "materials", "food articles", "plants", "animals", "parts of the body", or any other topic suitable to this kind of exercise.
b. If the assignment does not lend itself to labeled pictures, children will be expected to prepare a dramatization if that is appropriate. For example, in the list of "afflictions", the words *blind, pain, suffer, hurt, ill,* etc., will be dramatized. Similarly for verbs, *shake, pull, rise, seek,* etc.
c. Where pictures, objects, or dramatizations are not applicable, pupils will bring in the words in original sentences, or in sentences cut out of newspapers or magazines, or copied from billboard advertisements, etc.

[1]Adapted from a pamphlet gratuitously issued by the Bureau of Reference, Research, and Statistics of the Board of Education, The City of New York.

First Lesson

a. Teacher questions children to learn whether any of the words of the assignment were impossible to get for all pupils or most pupils.

   If there are any such, she explains them, and wherever possible has children dramatize them, or point them out in pictures, etc. Object lessons should be given where possible.

   Each word is brought to a head in a brief sentence written on the blackboard by the teacher, which pupil copies in his notebook later on during the penmanship lesson.

b. Teacher then rapidly hears pupils recite on the other words of the assignment, correcting as need be.

c. Teacher gives out mimeographed list of new words for homework.

Second Lesson

Same procedure as first.

Third Lesson

Same procedure as first.

Fourth Lesson

Drill and review of words of the week.

Inspection of pupils' books. Encouragement for extra work.

This procedure is carried out religiously to insure that the minimum essential list of words as set forth by Thorndike[1] shall be mastered so far at least as recognition of meaning goes.

A general attitude must be built up of desire to learn the meanings of new words. Motivation may be secured:

a. by showing the social value of a good vocabulary;
b. by showing the business value of a good vocabulary;
c. by proper methods utilizing pupils' self-activity, as suggested above, viz: dramatizing action words, making

[1]See Thorndike's *The Teacher's Word Book.*

albums with pictures labeled as to details, object lessons, collecting sentences from newspapers and pasting in pupil's book.

d. by contests between rows or classes; prizes for best albums or notebooks.

Widening the pupil's span of recognition.—The exercises and devices for extending the span of recognition made use of in earlier grades[1] may be continued as a regular practice through the middle grades. It must be kept in mind that although the foundations of good reading have probably been laid—even well laid—the superstructure, so to speak, must be built. Since silent reading plays so important a part in the intermediate grades, and the span of recognition, as we know, is not so limited as in oral reading, practice of the sort suggested is obviously necessary. Care should be taken that the exercises be intrinsic, that is, closely integrated with the reading content of the grade. Flash cards[2] properly constructed will be useful.

Increasing the pupil's rate of reading.—It is known that the purpose for which a pupil reads, his interest in what he reads, the degree of difficulty of the matter read, and his control of the mechanics of reading, all have much to do with his rate of reading. A child who has a definite purpose and interest in reading, other factors being equal, will read faster and more comprehendingly than one who has not. On the other hand, some authorities maintain that reading to answer questions tends to lessen the rate of recognition.

It has been shown that the same instruction in reading

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[1]See pages 68–71 and 230–236.

[2]See pages 116–118.

will not necessarily make all children read at an equal rate. Children will vary widely despite the teacher's efforts to bring them up to a uniform level. Some very bright pupils with a broad apperceptive basis may read more slowly than their less fortunate classmates, but by the same token they may read more comprehendingly so far as larger meanings are concerned.[1] Intelligence, indeed, plays a very important part, children of high intelligence, for instance, showing most rapid gains in both rate and comprehension. However, it is well to remember that rate in reading may be increased at any school level. Furthermore, reading rate may be developed through increasing the span of recognition. A span of recognition, we remember, is the size of the reading unit that a reader can recognize during a single fixation-pause.[2]

The figures in Table III[3] will illustrate the silent reading rate condition of one fifth-year class in an ordinary public school in a small New Jersey town.

Similar conditions probably exist in many other localities throughout the country. The pupils—17 girls and 15 boys—were tested every day during one school week. They used *Story Hour Readings* and were required to read for one minute and check the last word read. Count was then made and recorded.

In studying these figures the student should compare them with the median[4] rates as established by certain educational investigators, even though there is as yet no general agreement among these experts. Starch and

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[1]See pages 70 and 373.

[2]See pages 50–51 and 70–71.

[3]From a study by a teacher-student in a class of the author's at the College of the City of New York.

[4]The point above which 50 per cent of the class are found.

Courtis, for example, seem to agree upon 168 words per minute as the standard rate for fifth-grade silent reading. Gray would put the rate as high as 204.

TABLE III. FIFTH-YEAR CLASS RESULTS IN SILENT READING RATE
TIME: 1 MINUTE

	GIRLS					BOYS				
	M.	T.	W.	TH.	F.	M.	T.	W.	TH.	F.
1.	150	158	160	175	180	125	130	132	135	140
2.	165	168	169	170	175	300	325	328	340	342
3.	300	350	353	358	360	115	116	119	120	120
4.	285	288	290	291	293	110	111	111	112	110
5.	288	290	291	293	295	150	158	160	165	170
6.	350	360	363	368	375	200	225	230	232	235
7.	310	312	315	318	325	250	240	255	257	260
8.	308	310	309	310	310	112	113	115	118	120
9.	150	160	163	165	168	175	180	183	185	189
10.	180	190	200	210	215	280	290	310	315	317
11.	315	320	323	330	345	275	278	280	283	285
12.	308	310	315	318	325	120	125	127	128	130
13.	302	305	306	308	310	300	325	327	330	345
14.	248	248	250	252	252	115	118	125	128	132
15.	280	283	285	285	288	175	180	182	181	183
16.	250	252	258	260	261					
17.	200	215	220	222	223					

Interpretative questions and suggestions.—1. Make a graph of these figures. Make two more graphs: one for the girls, another for the boys. 2. Find the average and median for each column, for the girls, for the boys, and for the whole class. 3. What reasons can you suggest to account for the reading ability of these pupils? 4. Did the boys surpass the girls, or contrariwise? What specific reasons can you advance for this? 5. Into how many groups may such a class be divided? 6. After you have studied "Pupil activities (seatwork)", below, indicate which exercises you would use with pupils in the lowest quartile (quarter in rank order) of this class, which with those in the highest quartile, and which with pupils in the middle fifty percentile.

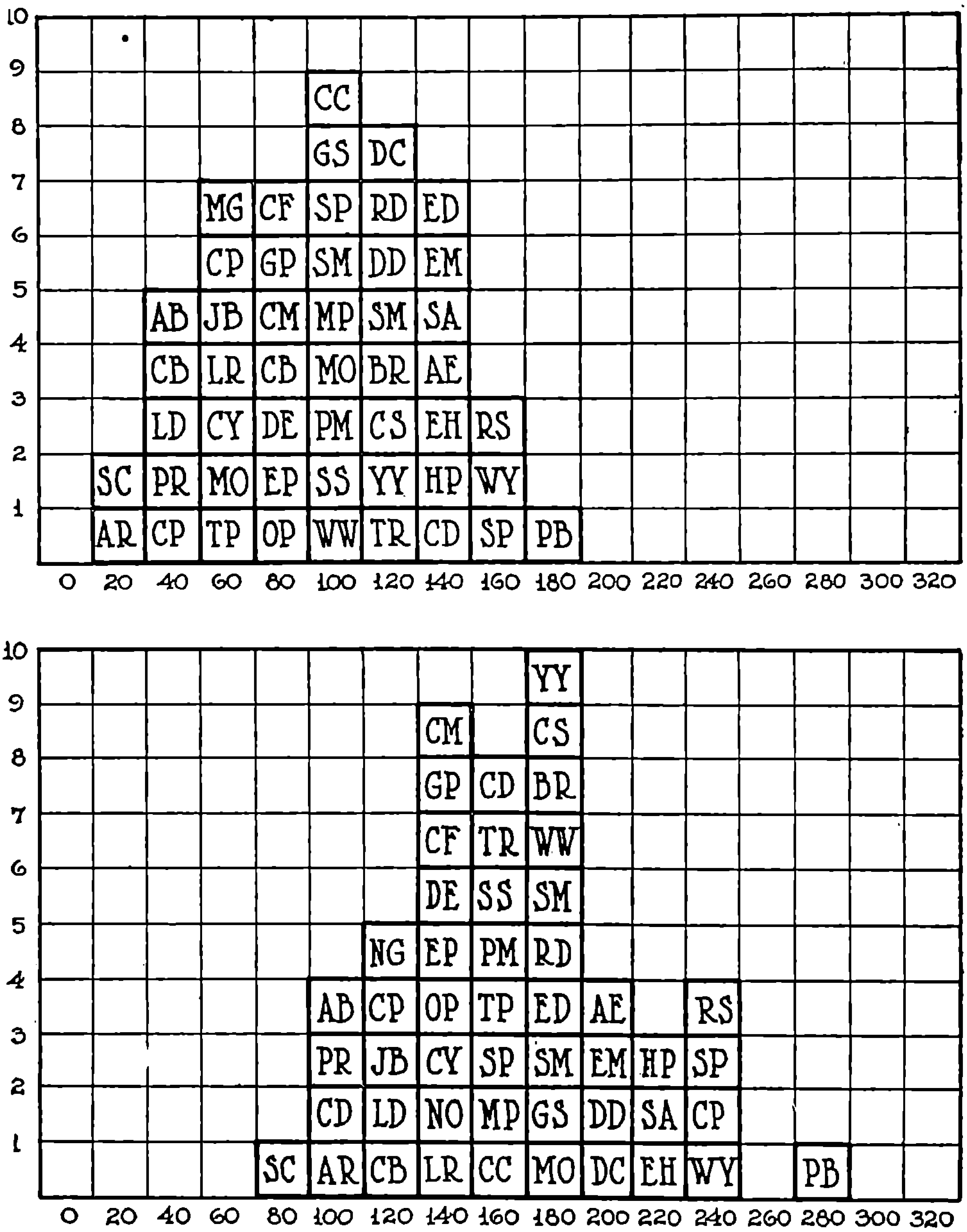

FIGURE 7. CLASS RECORDS IN RATE OF READING[1]

A suggestion for the graphic representation of class results. The horizontal figures indicate the rate in words per minute; the vertical, the number of pupils having a common rate. The letters on the blocks are the initials of pupils. The upper graph shows the rate of each pupil on October 1; the lower, the rate of each pupil on January 10 following. Notice how the relative positions shifted.

[1]Courtesy of the Laurel Publishing Company.

Exercises to increase speed.[1]—These may include (a) teacher-pupil activities and (b) pupil activities (seatwork). Time-limits should be set, decreasing progressively in length; or, amount-limits may be set, increasing progressively in size.

TEACHER-PUPIL ACTIVITIES

1. Carrying out written or printed directions: (a) Individual commands (such as: "Look at the picture on the front wall and tell me what you see in it."), safety-first directions ("What should you do before crossing the street?"), health rules ("Name some foods you should eat for breakfast."), personal history questions ("What is your father's name?"); (b) group commands (such as: "Take out geographies, turn to page 38, find out what the chief industries of Nebraska are, and be prepared to talk or write about them.".
2. Finding answers: Pupils looking for answers in a paragraph not previously read.
3. Timed game: When "time" is called, pupils put a dot after last word and count the number of words read within the required time, the fastest reader being obliged to submit to questioning upon the content read. The winner is the one who has read most speedily and most accurately. A committee of two or three pupils may act as judges with the teacher.
4. Answering flash questions: Pupils, arranged in sides, read selections once silently, close books, and answer questions on flash cards; pupils, in sides, try to be first to carry out directions printed on flash cards.
5. Relay race: Class grouped, pupils reading at signal, each standing, when he has finished a given selection, to receive questions to answer upon the content read.

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[1]Grateful acknowledgment is made of suggestions and exercises culled through the years from students' notebooks and teachers' planbooks, the sources of which it is unfortunately impossible to identify. NILA B. SMITH'S *One Hundred Ways of Teaching Silent Reading* gives much excellent material.

PUPIL ACTIVITIES (SEATWORK)

1. Missing word game: Sentences based on reading lesson, with words omitted here and there, written on blackboard or exercise papers, the pupils competing by looking through the selection for missing words.
2. Phrase game: Teacher placing questions on board or exercise papers, the answers to be found in certain phrases in the reading lesson.
3. Solving "yes" and "no" problems: Such as: "Mary grew $\frac{3}{4}$ of an inch in three months, while John grew $\frac{5}{8}$ of an inch. Did their total growth amount to more than 1 inch?" (Similarly, for other subjects.)

Improving the pupil's comprehension.—In the matter of comprehension, too, improvement is possible. The teacher need not fear—except with pupils of subnormal intelligence[1]—that if she develops her pupils' reading rate she will of necessity decrease their understanding of what they read. In fact, it has been shown that there is a close and favorable relationship between rate and comprehension in reading. Attention to either tends to improve both. Though this statement is borne out by investigation it should not be forgotten that overemphasis upon mere speed will not result fruitfully in comprehension. Especially is this true for many young readers when they are confronted with a situation demanding comprehension of deeper, more subtle meaning. "As much as the traffic will bear" is a slogan which may be wisely adapted to our purpose here. Furthermore, it should be said, in passing, that the correlation of speed and comprehension does not remain constant as children proceed through school.

1. *Quality as well as quantity.*—Comprehension of reading matter should be considered from the standpoint

[1]JUDD and BUSWELL'S *Silent Reading: A Study of the Various Types.*

of quality as well as of quantity. Pupils who comprehend may vary in accuracy of comprehension. The *Courtis Silent Reading Test No. 2*[1] has revealed the divergence of development in speed and accuracy of interpretation. While pupils will not show marked improvement in their speed of accurate interpretation until the upper grades, they may show considerable growth in accuracy of interpretation in the earlier years. *Courtis Research Tests in Silent Reading* have determined scores from 59 to 95 for

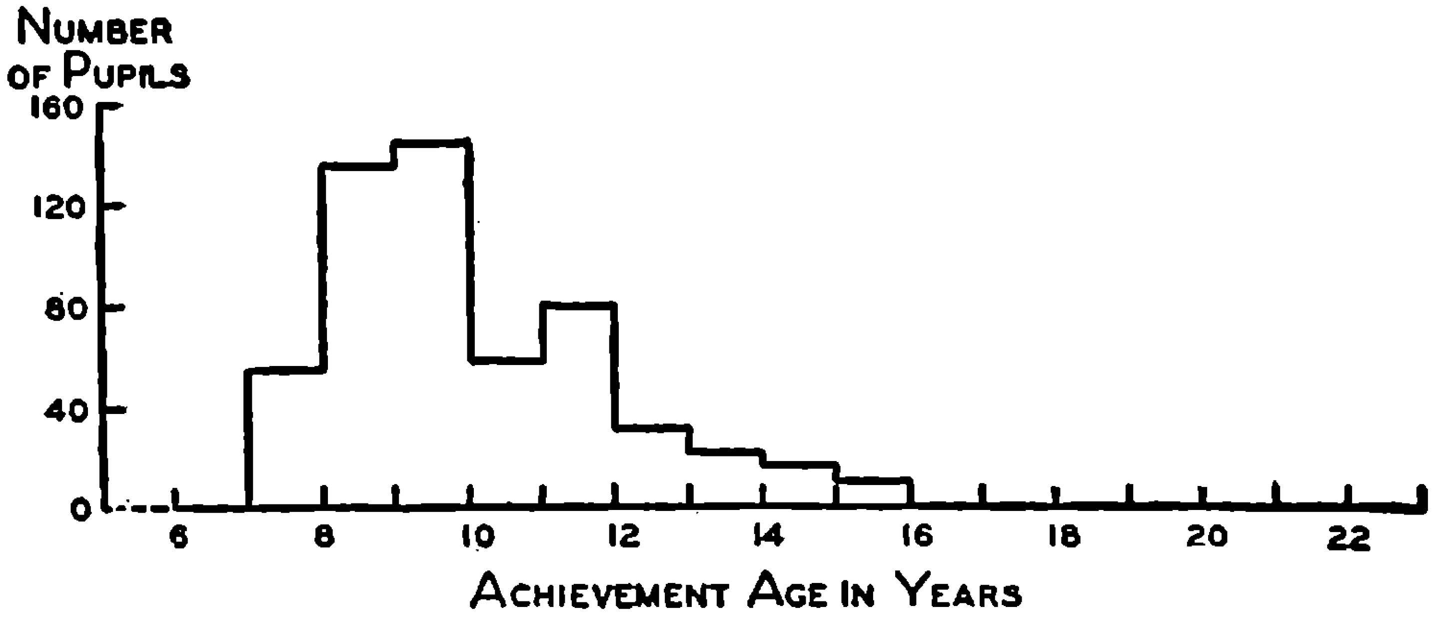

Figure 8. Distribution of Fifth-Grade Pupils According to Achievement Age in Comprehension of Silent Reading

(After Monroe, DeVoss, and Reagan)[2]

the second to sixth grades, the greatest progress—59 to 78—being shown between the second and the third, but much less between the fourth and the fifth, and between the fifth and the sixth. These scores are based on tests with simple reading matter. Tests with more difficult material indicate the possibility of progress through all the grades including high school. Stress on content or meaning will

[1]See W. S. Gray's "Summary of Investigations Relating to Reading."
[2]From *Educational Psychology*.

be marked by greater growth in comprehension in silent reading just as it will be in oral reading.[1]

Exercises to increase comprehension.—As in the exercises for increasing speed, exercises to increase comprehension may also include (a) teacher-pupil activities and (b) pupil activities (seatwork).

TEACHER-PUPIL ACTIVITIES

1. Guessing pantomimes: Some pupils acting parts of a story in pantomime while others guess which scenes have been thus portrayed.
2. Playing a game from written or printed directions.
3. Story telling from question slips: Teacher preparing outline of story in a series of questions to be answered by individual pupils after they have read the selection silently.
4. Question exchange: Pupils (or teacher) making up a set of questions which are then exchanged for answering based upon matter all have read silently.
5. Finding exciting parts in a story: Teacher beginning the reading of some exciting part of a fresh selection, then stopping to ask pupils to read on silently to find out result, the pupils later telling about it orally.
6. Marking game: Pupils marking certain parts which tell things, as teacher calls for them.
7. Dramatizing a selection: Pupils reading and selecting special scenes for dramatic purposes.
8. Oral reproduction of stories.

PUPIL ACTIVITIES (SEATWORK—STUDY PERIOD—LIBRARY PERIOD)

These exercises may be assigned to individual pupils or to groups of pupils, according to their needs. It will be noted that

[1]It will be well for the teacher to keep careful class and individual records, in graph form preferably. A graph composed of squares, to be filled in as the record grows, may be posted at the beginning of the term. The pupils should make and keep their own individual graphs or charts. A "reading thermometer" may be substituted for the class graph. Other devices equally serviceable will come to mind.

these exercises are intended for various levels of intelligence and achievement.

1. Looking for answers: Teacher preparing questions on "what to find out," and pupils reading for the answers.
   Reading to find entertaining material: Pupils encouraged to read silently for later reproduction in class.
3. Answering fact questions: Answers coming directly from the selection read.
4. Answering thought questions: Answers to be formulated by pupil after reflection.
5. Filling blanks with words: Paragraphs selected from reading selection with certain omitted words to be supplied by pupils.
6. Using selections from old readers: Old matter clipped and given to pupils, with fact or thought questions to be answered after reading, typical answers being prepared by teacher for check purposes.
7. Book reviews: Pupils giving title of book, author's name, opinions and brief account of content.
8. Drawing, cutting and construction: Drawing characters or scenes in a story—with or without specific directions from the teacher; construction work from written directions—"how-to-make-things problems"; making graphs of progress in speed or comprehension—pupil recording scores in various tests, in squares, or in other similar fashion.
9. Matching pictures and stories: Pupils selecting pictures clipped from periodicals and newspapers appropriate to stories or parts of stories read.
10. Matching headings and paragraphs: Pupils matching a series of numbered paragraphs with several disarranged headings.
11. Pairing sentences differently worded but having the same meaning.
12. Puzzle of underlining words: Pupils completing sentences by choice among several specified words.
13. Finding the main ideas in several paragraphs and constructing a summary paragraph therefrom.

14. Listing the actions of characters.
15. Selecting the most interesting sentence: Pupils reading choices with discussion to follow in another period.
16. Making geography or history scrapbooks: Pupils clipping and organizing in proper sequence what they clip.
17. Phrase search: Pupils reading to find word-groups to explain time, place, cause, and effect.
18. Mixed sentence puzzle: Pupils putting disarranged sentences in proper order.
19. Reading to find information about a certain topic: Pupils reading somewhat widely and organizing facts about an assigned subject.
20. True and false game: Pupils writing true or false in column to indicate their views upon statements about the story read.
21. Describing an imaginary trip from a railroad, steamship, or tourist folder: Pupils writing an account of a trip outlined in a folder and, after reading about the places named, preparing a "Book of Travel."
22. Skimming game: Pupils trying to hunt up answers to questions upon matter previously read.
23. Listing references: For assembly program or other purposes.
24. Checking topics differently treated: Pupils looking through the tables of contents or indexes of several books, for instance, to find several versions of the same story.

The student will readily discover ways and means of inventing other similar and worth-while exercises to test and improve the pupils' silent reading. Lesson-plans should be worked out for all of the exercises mentioned. This may be done as a project-enterprise by the whole class or by a selected group of students. As far as practicable these plans should be tried out with children under actual classroom conditions.

Testing and Remedial Work in Reading

Giving a standard reading test.—Following is a stenographic report of how *Monroe's Standardized Silent Reading Test, Revised, Test 1, Form 2,*[1] was given in a period of fifteen minutes to a class of intermediate-grade children of average intelligence. It will be recalled that this test asks the pupils to fill in certain preliminary items as follows: name, sex, age last birthday, when the next birthday will be, grade in school, date, city and state, school, and teacher. Three exercises are then presented by way of illustration of how the pupils are to answer the various queries on the three sheets that follow.

TEACHER: Boys and girls, we are going to try a test in reading this morning. The most important part of the work is to do just what you are told to do when you are told to do so. Leave the papers just where the monitors put them. Put your hands under the desk. This is the position I want, with elbow on the desk when I say, "Attention." (Teacher illustrates.) Attention! Where it says "Name," write your name. Very good. That boy is ready. After "Boy" or "Girl," write the word that tells which you are. If you are a boy, write "Boy." If you are a girl, write "Girl." On the next line, after "Age last birthday," tell how old you were on your last birthday. After "Next birthday will be," write the month, day, and year of your next birthday. After "Grade," write the grade that you are in. Write today's date, December 13. After "City," write the name of the city; after "State," write the name of the state. You may use abbreviations. Write the name of your school. Write your teacher's name. Is there any question about the heading?

In the next paragraph we are going to meet the words, "bold-face type"; that means heavy black type. Class, give me one word on your paper that is written in heavy black type.

[1]Permission has been granted by the Public School Publishing Company to reprint such parts of this test as are quoted directly.

CHILDREN: "Chinese."

TEACHER: I will read the first paragraph. Follow as I read. [*Teacher reads from the test paper.*] "Below there are three exercises. Under each exercise there is a row of words printed in bold-face type. Each exercise asks a question. You are to read each exercise and then answer the question by drawing a line under the right word printed in the black type."

Teacher has children read part (a) of the trial questions to themselves. This question is:

"I am a little dark-skinned girl. I wear a slip of brown buckskin and a pair of soft moccasins. I live in a wigwam. What kind of girl do you think I am?

Chinese French Indian African Eskimo

"The answer to this exercise is 'Indian,' so draw a line under Indian."

After the children have read the first paragraph of this question, the teacher asks them what kind of girl they think the little girl is.

CHILDREN: An Indian girl.

TEACHER: Right! Indian is correct. Draw a line under the word "Indian". Pencils up! Some of you are too slow.

[*Teacher goes over second and third questions in a similar way.*]

Teacher reads the following directions aloud while the children are reading them silently:

"On the three following sheets there are a number of exercises like these to be read and answered. When the signal is given, turn over this page and begin. Work rapidly but remember that your answer must be right in order to count. Remember that you are to draw a line under only one word in each exercise."

TEACHER: You are going to get three commands. One is "Turn", the next, "Go", and the next, "Stop". Do you know what each command means? [*Teacher explains each.*] Have you any question?

TEACHER [*quickly*]: Turn! Go!

[*The children are given five minutes in which to answer the questions. One child raises his hand during the examination, and asks:* "Must we add these columns?", *referring to the numbers*

printed to the left of the questions, which tell the number of words read up to any given point. Teacher quietly answers "No."]

TEACHER [*tapping the desk lightly with a ruler, when the five minutes are up*]: Stop! Pencils up, instantly! Good, almost everybody stopped on the shot of the gun. With your left hand find the line that you were reading when I said "Stop." Put a line like this [*teacher illustrates*] under the number which is to the left of that line. Pencils up! Pencils down! Hands on heads! Quickly! Good, you were ready first. [*Teacher collects the papers.*] If your paper is gone, put your hands down. How many liked it? [*The children are very enthusiastic.*] I think they are lots of fun. We are going to have more of these during the term; all kinds of tests like this. But the most important part of all tests like this is what?

CHILDREN: To stop.

TEACHER: To do just what you are told to do when you are told to do it.

Conducting a standard silent reading test and remedial measure program.[1]—A reading experiment was carried on in two upper-sixth-grade classes from February to May. The aims of the teachers in this experiment were as follows:

a. To test, diagnose, and improve the four reading abilities of sixth-year pupils, as suggested by Professor Arthur I. Gates in his *The Improvement of Reading.*

b. To indicate to student-teachers:
   1. How a reading test may be given.
   2. How wide a range of reading abilities may exist in a single group.
   3. How much remedial measures may accomplish in the improvement of reading abilities.

[1]Conducted, under the author's supervision, and contributed by Miss Frances A. Weber and Miss Mary G. O'Connell of the Practice School of the New York Training School for Teachers.

4. How effective directed learning may be in ordinary reading situations.

The *Gates Silent Reading Tests*, consisting of the following types, were used as a team of tests:

Test A. Reading to Appreciate the General Significance of a Paragraph (Time: Six minutes)
Test B. Reading to Predict the Outcome of Given Events (Time: Eight minutes)
Test C. Reading to Understand the Precise Directions (Time: Eight minutes)
Test D. Reading to Note Details (Time: Eight minutes)

These tests, besides furnishing a general reading score, measure, as will have been noted, particular kinds of reading ability. Gates tells us that, during the period of years in which the matter has been studied, persons have been discovered who are good in some types of reading but less good, mediocre, or actually poor in others.

The four tests (Form I) were given Tuesday, February 20, to sixty-two children. As soon as the papers were scored the pupils made individual graphs which showed them a picture of their silent reading abilities. The children were so keenly interested in their graphs that there was no need of further motivation. The graphs showed that few children were equally poor in all four types of reading abilities.

The following information was obtained from the tabulated results:

1. The reading grades ranged from 3.6 to 11.2 (the actual grade being 6.5).
2. The reading ages ranged from 9.3 to 18.4 years (the chronological age for the sixth grade being 11.5 to 12.5).

3. The general reading ability (after averaging the scores of the four tests) showed that:
   a. 17 pupils were below Gates's norm in reading age (the norm being the "highest average class scores of New York Schools tested").
   b. 32 pupils were below in reading grade. (Gates's norm was again used, as above).

It is interesting to state that the pupils who were deficient in Test C (Reading to Understand Precise Directions) had difficulty in interpreting and analysing problems in arithmetic.[1]

Since the classes showed such extremes in reading abilities the next problem to be considered was grouping. Inasmuch as training in mere reading, that is, reading in general, would be inadequate, and would also be training in only one kind of reading skill, it was necessary to group the children according to their abilities. For experimental purposes the children were massed in two large groups, namely, the control group, and the experimental group.

The control group (thirty children whose reading grades were above 6.5) were permitted to work more or less independently along the lines of their individual interests. Each child was furnished with a notebook in which he listed the three subjects he liked best to read about. At this point the teacher's knowledge of the child and his needs was necessary to guide the children in their selection of books. The pupils were urged to select the books from those recommended in their course of study in literature. Several books were approved for each child. During the reading periods (three one-half hours a week) the children read these books silently. A record of daily

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[1] See pages 314–315.

speed and comprehension was kept by all. The speed was measured by the pages or chapters read during the allotted time; the comprehension was measured by the making of concise notes which were used by pupils in their oral reports. These notebooks were examined by the teachers periodically, and encouragement and guidance given where needed.

The experimental group (children whose reading grades were below 6.5) were also furnished with notebooks in which they listed the reading skills that they needed to improve.

They were permitted to choose the order or sequence they wished to follow in their improvement work. Most of them desired to improve Type C (Reading to Understand Precise Directions) first, since they were informed that the improvement of that skill would undoubtedly improve their work in arithmetic. It was more easily possible to bring in this correlation because the teachers who taught these two groups taught them both reading and arithmetic.

Since reading grades of the children in this group ranged from 3.6 to 6.5 (those above 6.5 being in the control group) the question of obtaining suitable reading material was a perplexing one. It was obvious that a sixth-year reader would be as discouraging for most of the children as a third-year reader would be uninviting. Therefore, suitable material in the form of paragraphs, selections, stories pictures, riddles, and advertisements was gleaned from all available sources. Each clipping was mounted on a card. Appropriate questions or directions were attached to the reverse side of the card. (See sample, page 384). These cards were graded as far as possible and grouped according to the four skills; no two cards were alike. During the

reading period the children helped themselves to the cards and answered the questions in their notebooks. To eliminate too much writing and to facilitate the checking up, which was done periodically, only brief answers were required. The children were encouraged to read rapidly by keeping a record of the number of cards completed in each period. Carelessness was discouraged because all errors had to be corrected at the beginning of each period following the check-up.

Copy of Sample Card for Remedial Work

All stood amazed until an old woman, tottering out from among the crowd, put her hand to her brow, and peering under it in his face for a moment, exclaimed, "Sure enough! it is Rip Van Winkle—it is himself! Welcome home again, old neighbor. Why, where have you been these twenty long years?"

Rip's story was soon told, for the whole twenty years had been to him but as one night. The neighbors stared when they heard it; some were seen to wink at each other, and put their tongues in their cheeks: and the self-important man in the cocked hat, who when the alarm was over had returned to the field, screwed down the corners of his mouth, and shook his head—upon which there was a general shaking of the head throughout the assemblage.

It was determined, however, to ask the opinion of old Peter Vanderdonk, who was seen slowly advancing up the road. He was a descendant of the historian of that name, who wrote one of the earliest accounts of the province. Peter was the most ancient inhabitant of the village, and well versed in all the wonderful events and traditions of the neighborhood.

QUESTIONS

1. Who welcomed Rip?
2. How long had Rip been gone?
3. How did the neighbors act?
4. Whose opinion was to be sought? Why?

The teacher's attention was given almost entirely to the few who, at first, found it impossible to work alone. Their problems were individual and unique and could not be treated in mass. Even they mastered some method of attack, crude as it was, within the last few weeks.

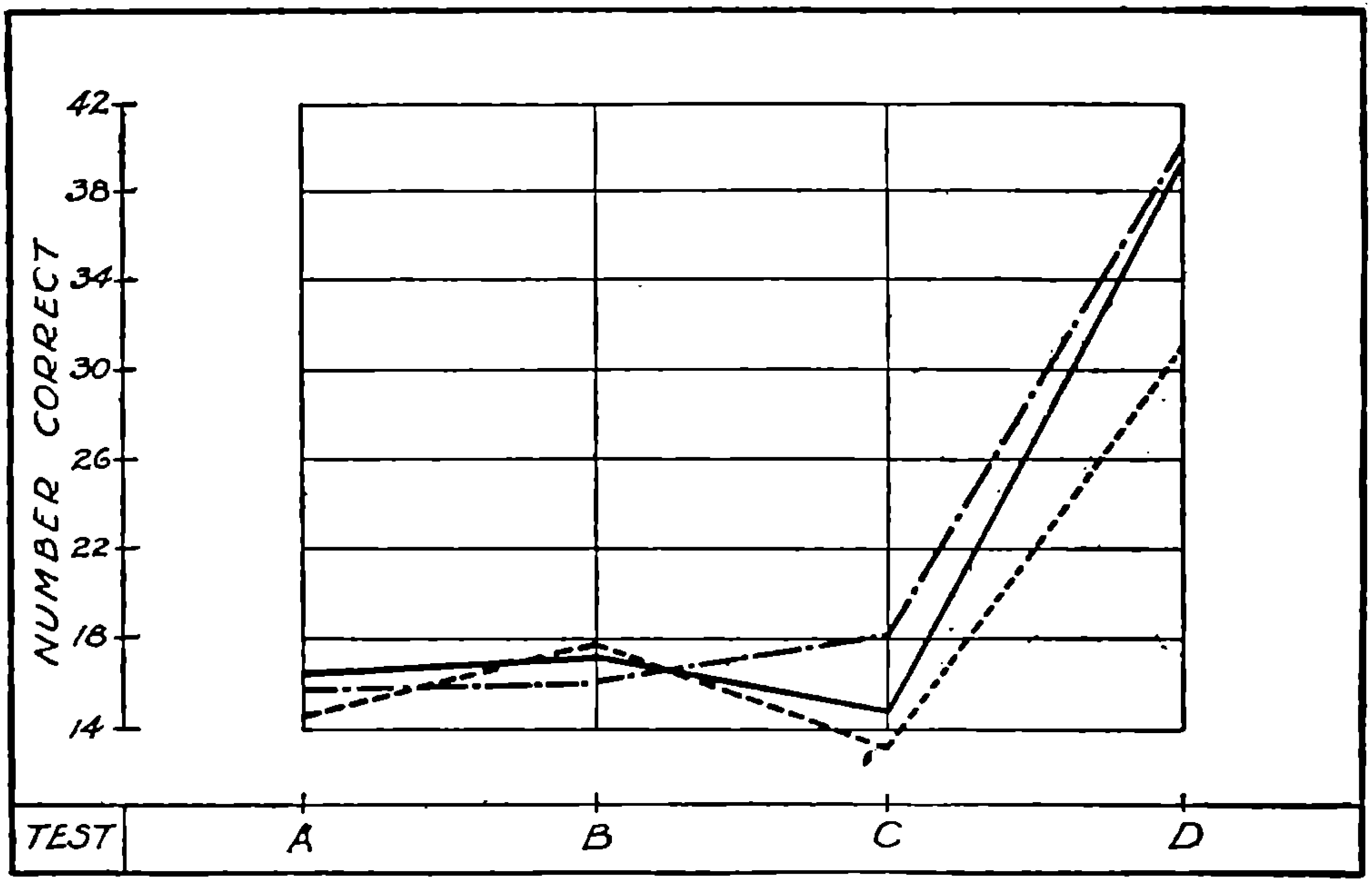


Figure 9. Number of Correct Scores Attained by Two Sixth-Year Classes

The *Gates Silent Reading Tests* were used and the period of remedial teaching extended from February to the end of May. See Table VI for frequency distribution.

———— Median norm for New York City pupils (Gates's norm)

February median

–.–.–. May median

Every two weeks a silent reading test, for speed and comprehension (time: eight minutes on the average), was given to the entire class. The stories in the sixth-year supplementary reader were used. The questions were formulated by the teachers. The children kept an account of the results of the five tests given, and compared

these results with the class medians, since there were no fixed standards.

The experiment covered a period of twelve weeks.

Tuesday, May 29, the classes were retested. Form 2 of the Gates Team of Tests was used. The results were scored, tabulated, and graphed as before.

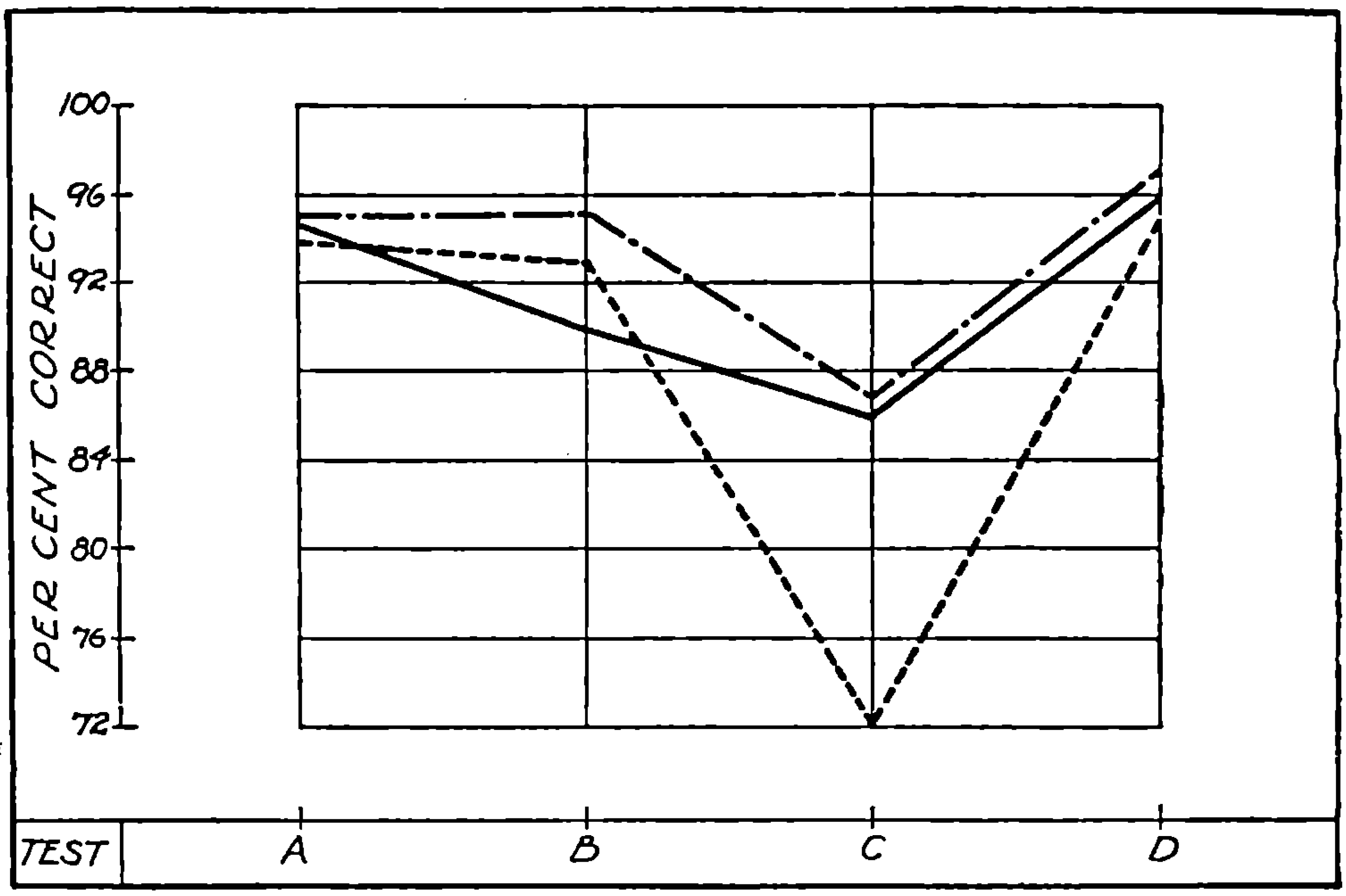


FIGURE 10. PERCENTAGES OF ACCURACY ATTAINED BY TWO SIXTH-YEAR CLASSES

The *Gates Silent Reading Tests* were used and the period of remedial teaching extended from February to the end of May. See Table VI for frequency distribution.

——— Median norm for New York City pupils (Gates's norm)

- - - - - February median

—·—·— May median

The following information was obtained from the second tabulated results:

a. The reading grades ranged from 3.6 up to 11.3 (the actual grade being 6.5). See Table IV, page 387, and note the number that have moved above 6.5.

b. The reading ages, as determined by this experiment, ranged from 9 to 19 (norm: 12.5). See Table V, page 388, and note the number of pupils above the norm.

c. The general reading ability (after averaging the scores of the four tests) showed that:
   1. Only 6 of the 62 pupils were still below Gates's norm of reading age (12.5);
   2. Only 13 of the 62 pupils were still below in reading grade (Gates's norm 6.5).

d. Several pupils improved their problem work in proportion to their improvement of Test C.

The tables that follow graphically indicate specific results of the experiment described above. They should receive careful study with special notation of the improvement made by the pupils in the course of a single term of well-directed teaching and learning.

TABLE IV. THE RESULTS, BY GRADES, OF THE SECOND TEST, THAT OF MAY 28

READING GRADE	NO. OF PUPILS FORM 1. (FEB.)	NO. OF PUPILS FORM 2. (MAY)
11	1	7
10	3	7
9	3	9
8	10	12
7	7	14
6	13	11
5	16	1
4	5	1
3	4	
Total	62	62
No. below Norm (6.5)	32	13

TABLE V. THE RESULTS, BY AGES, OF THE SECOND TEST, THAT OF MAY 28

READING AGE	NO. OF PUPILS FORM I. (FEB.)	NO. OF PUPILS FORM 2. (MAY)
19	0	3
18	1	4
17	2	5
16	2	6
15	5	10
14	7	12
13	8	11
12	13	9
11	14	1
10	7	0
9	3	1
Total	62	62
No. below Gates's Norm (12.5)	17	6

TABLE VI. CLASS ACCURACY

	TEST A		TEST B		TEST C		TEST D	
	CORRECT		CORRECT		CORRECT		CORRECT	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
FEB. CLASS MEDIAN FORM I	14.4	94	17.7	93	13.1	72	31.1	95
MAY CLASS MEDIAN FORM 2	15.6	95	16.1	95	18.1	87	39.9	97
Gates's Norm	*16.4*	*94.8*	*17.2*	*90*	*14.8*	*86*	*39.3*	*96*

ABLE VII. INDIVIDUAL PUPIL FREQUENCY OF CORRECTNESS IN THE FOUR TYPES OF GATES SILENT READING TESTS.

No. of Paragraphs Correct	Test A No. Pupils Feb.	Test A No. Pupils May	Test B No. Pupils Feb.	Test B No. Pupils May	Test C No. Pupils Feb.	Test C No. Pupils May
24	1	5	5	4		2
23	1	2	4	3		6
22	0	0	5	1	3	6
21	1	3	3	3	0	5
20	4	2	3	3	1	6
19	1	2	2	6	5	4
18	1	4	4	6	1	7
17	4	2	8	3	6	10
16	4	6	8	4	3	8
15	8	8	3	5	4	4
14	8	6	2	7	7	0
13	7	9	6	7	3	3
12	8	4	1	3	8	1
11	5	2	3	4	8	
10	5	3	0	2	4	
9	2	1	1	0	1	
8	1	2	0	0	1	
7	1	0	4	0	5	
6		1		1	1	
4					1	
1						
Total	62	62	62	62	62	62
Our Median	14.4	15.6	17.7	16.1	13.1	18.1
Gates's Norm	*16.4*		*17.2*		*14.8*	

No. of Paragraphs Correct	Test D No. Pupils Feb.	Test D No. Pupils May
54		6
53		1
52	1	1
51	0	2
50	1	0
49	0	1
48	1	3
47	0	2
45	0	1
44	2	1
43	0	2
41	1	4
40	2	3
39	2	5
38	3	5
37	3	1
36	3	7
35	3	4
34	1	3
33	2	1
32	4	2
31	3	2
30	2	0
29	4	4
28	2	0
27	3	0
26	6	0
25	1	0
24	4	1
23	2	0
22	1	
21	1	
20	1	
15	2	
12	1	
Total	62	62
Our Median	31.1	39.9
Gates's Norm	*39.3*	

Table VIII. Reading Records of Typical Pupils 1, 2, 3, 4, with Five Different Selections.

Date	Selections[1] Read	Total No. of Words	Class Median Rate	Minutes Required				Words per Minute				Comprehension			
				1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
2/28/28	The Actor and the Pig	290	193	1¾	1⅙	1½	1½	165	248	232	193	100%	100%	66%	66%
3/20/28	The Fisherman and the Genie	1665	195	9¼	5¾	4¾	8½	180	289	350	195	90%	80%	100%	45%
4/17/28	Hatteras Joe	1715	196	9¾	6	4½	8¾	175	285	381	196	70%	80%	90%	70%
5/ 1/28	The Apples of Idun	1775	197	9¼	6	4¾	9¾	191	295	373	182	100%	90%	50%	20%
5/22/28	The Runaway Freight	1480	207	8¾	5	4	7½	169	296	370	197	90%	80%	70%	80%

[1]From *Bobbs Merrill Readers—The Sixth Reader.*

Among the four pupils whose reading records are shown in Table VIII, the individual backgrounds ranged as follows:

Pupil 1—Highly cultivated, English speaking, books in home

Pupil 2—Average, English speaking, books in home

Pupil 3—Slightly above average, English-foreign speaking

Pupil 4—Illiterate, English-foreign speaking

Interpretative questions and suggestions.—1. Study the aims of this experiment with care. 2. Note the four types of tests and the time limit for each. 3. What is the distinction between the control group and the experimental group? 4. Study all of the tabulated results. What is their practical significance? 5. Note the period during which the experiment was conducted. 6. What is the practical significance of the "Reading Grade" table on page 387? The "Reading Age" table on page 388? The "Frequency Table" on page 389? 7. Study the table on page 390. What useful information does it exhibit? 8. Make a careful study of the four children's graphs on page 390, in the light of the note following on page 391. 9. In a recent work[1] we find these statements: "Much of the success of remedial instruction in reading is dependent upon the vigor with which the child (and teacher) attacks his difficulties. The more clearly he understands what his handicaps are, the more interest and intelligence he will show in overcoming them. Showing him his progress from week to week will also stimulate him to further efforts." To what extent did the teachers of the sixth-year pupils to whom these tests were given observe the spirit of this opinion? 10. Study Figures 11 and 12.

[1]Page 129, *The Teachers' Handbook* by W. S. ELSBREE, H. B. HALSEY, and E. S. ELSBREE.

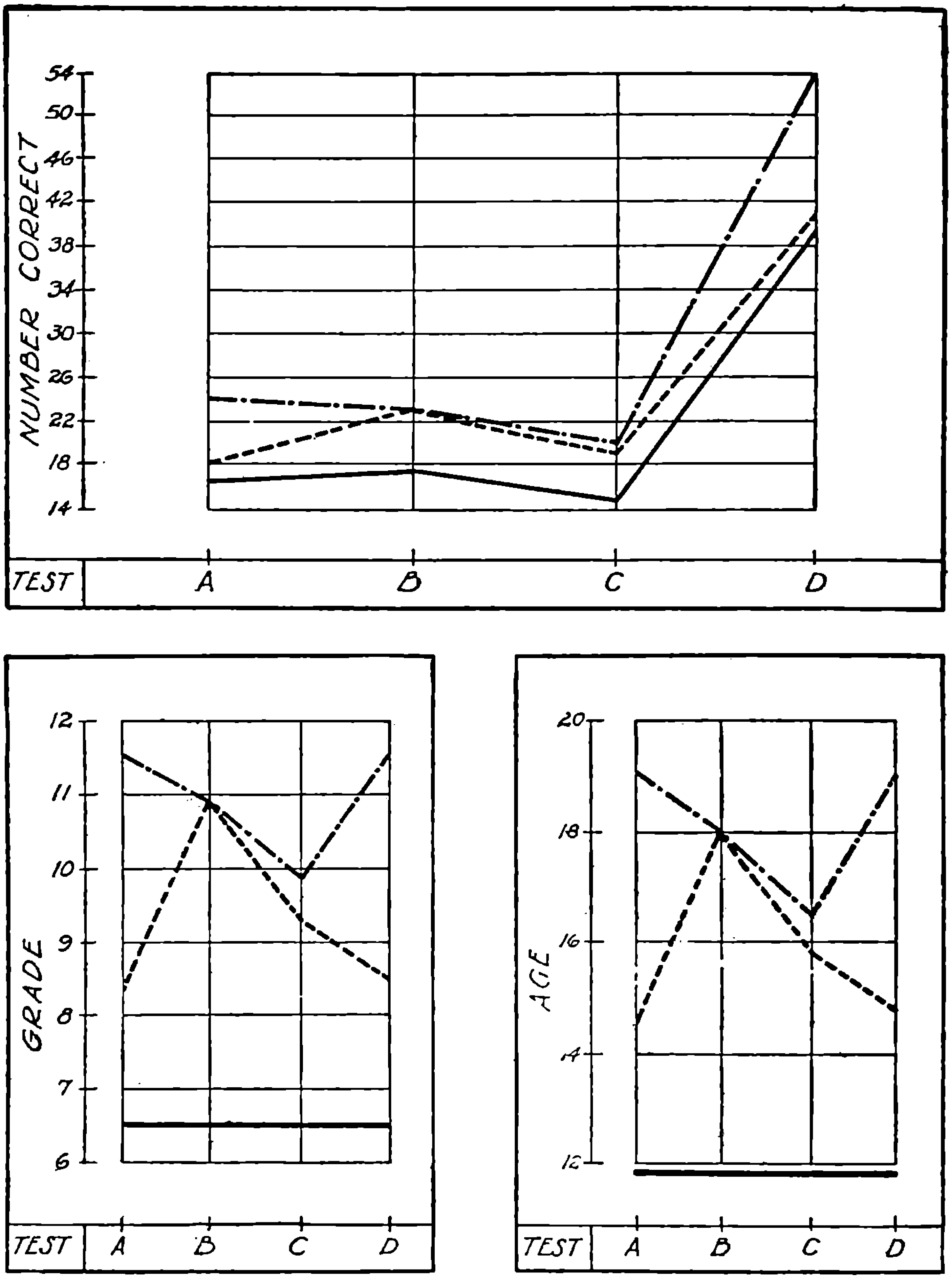


Figure 11. The Reading Scores of a Typical Sixth-Year Pupil of Highly Cultivated, English-Speaking Parents with Books in Their Home.

See Table VIII for distribution of record of Pupil 1.

——— Highest average class score for New York City pupils (Gates's norm)

------ February score –.–.–. May score

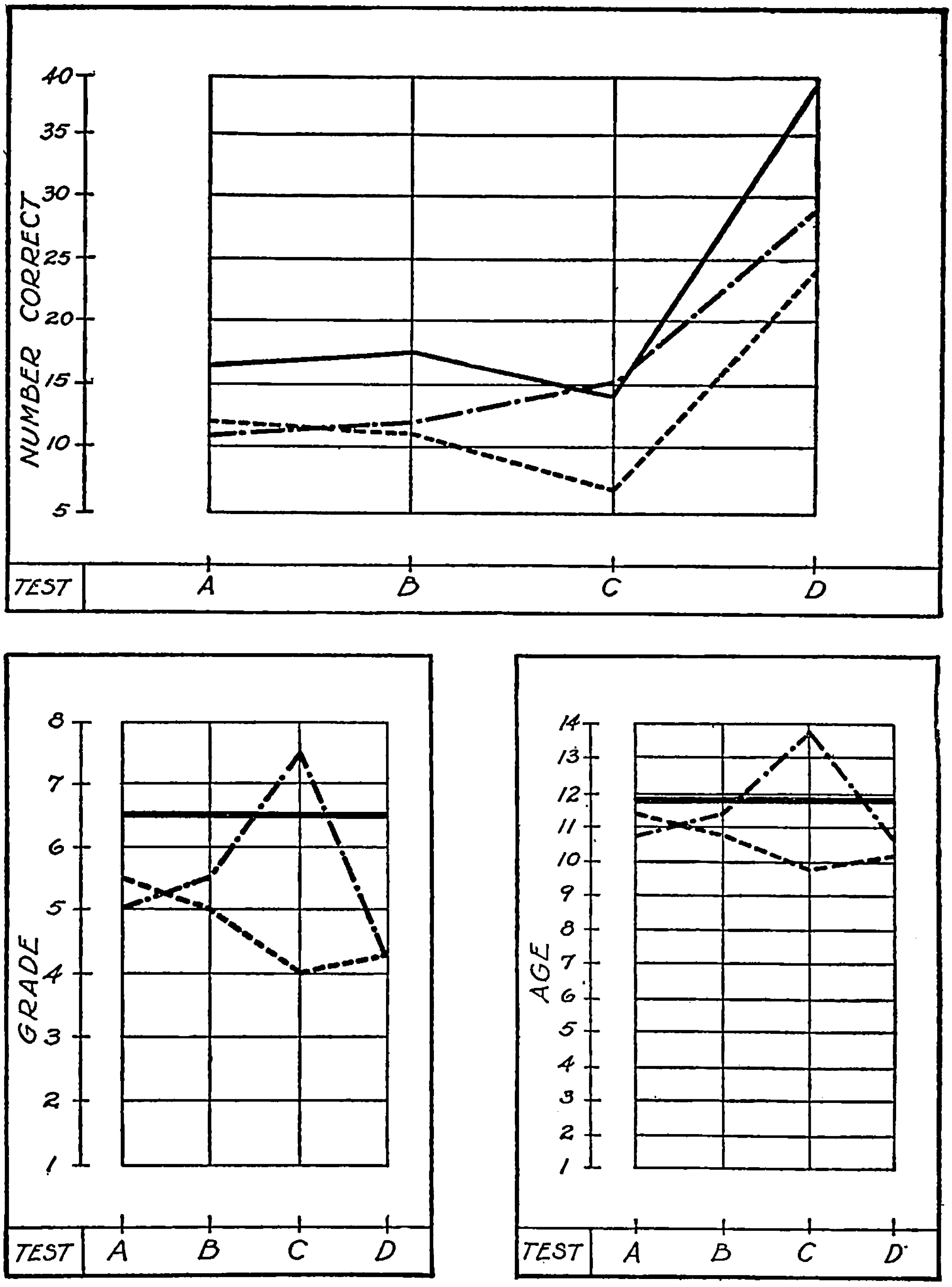


FIGURE 12. THE READING SCORES OF A TYPICAL SIXTH-YEAR PUPIL OF ILLITERATE, ENGLISH-FOREIGN SPEAKING PARENTS WITH NO BOOKS IN THEIR HOME.

See Table VIII for distribution of record of Pupil 4.

——— Highest average class score for New York City pupils (Gates's norm)

------ February score —.—.—. May score

Four levels of reading achievement to be attained by the close of the intermediate period.—It will be fitting to close this discussion of reading in the middle grades with a brief statement of desirable, though, as we know, not always attainable levels of reading achievement. The normal child who has been competently trained should have achieved the four following major reading objectives at the close of the sixth school year:

1. Interest enough in many fields of human experience to stimulate further reading with pleasure, profit, and independence of the teacher.
2. Habits of reading, which (a) will enable him to interpret the printed page with accuracy and sympathy; (b) will encourage him to read any piece of useful or entertaining matter; (c) will have developed a wide eye-voice span[1] and reasonably good expression in oral reading, fair speed, and comprehension in silent reading, and a satisfactory degree of speed and accuracy in word recognition. By the end of the fifth year the pupil is likely to have attained most of his growth in recognition-span. After the fifth year his advance in this particular may be comparatively slight. Investigation seems to show that in every grade after the first the width of the silent reading span of recognition is greater than that of the oral reading span. There appear to be two periods of growth, namely, the first four years and the middle high school years.[2]
3. Ability to use properly not only such tools of learning as reference books, like the dictionary and

[1]See pages 52–55.

[2]Consult pages 98–101 of O'Brien's *Reading: Its Psychology and Pedagogy.* The whole of Chapter IV will repay reading.

encyclopedia, but also the various subject-matter books of the first six school years.

4. Ever-enlarging vocabulary and the ability to use it in attacking new words.

Review.—Closely associated with the regular silent reading period, during which comprehension of varied material is the prime objective, there should be well-prepared practice periods. These periods will be designed to meet the needs of pupils as revealed in the regular reading periods as well as in tests. Four very important practice periods for all pupils will have as their objectives: the enlargement of vocabulary, the widening of span of recognition, the increase of reading rate, and the improvement of comprehension. Remedial measures wisely devised after careful testing, and regularly employed, should effect satisfactory results in the hands of skillful, sympathetic teachers.

STUDY PROBLEMS

A. Discussion Topics

1. What, apparently, were the merits, what the demerits of this lesson as reported?

> The teacher had not carefully organized her work. This was seen in the check-up of the silent reading. She kept continually looking through her story in order to formulate questions. After a question was discussed the teacher paused and looked through the story for her next question. Consequently, the procedure was slow and full of pauses, at which times the children were very restless.
>
> They seemed to get the thought of the story pretty well, however, for in most cases the teacher's questions were answered very promptly and correctly. A week before the lesson was given, the teacher had discussed the American Revolution with the children. The story was therefore fairly familiar to the pupils and, as it was full of

action, it was doubly interesting to them. It was a fourth-year class.

2. A student-teacher reports:

> While out in the schools I was given a sixth-year class, which could not read a paragraph to time-limit and tell me the main thought afterwards. After three weeks of practice I found that the power of concentration had increased pretty well and that the pupils could read a paragraph and give me the thought to time-limit at the end of a few minutes.

What "practice" would you recommend in such a case? Upon what previously obtained facts about the class would you plan this practice?

3. "For the intermediate grades we notice in our course of study a list of books for the use of the child in extensive outside reading. If we come to the classroom we find the teachers using all the textbooks of the grade, supplemented by readers which deal with these subjects individually. Why? The answer is, to give the child many views of a subject. He is acquiring information." Discuss the why and the wherefore of this statement.

4. "Set a time-limit in silent reading, and also the number of paragraphs to be read." What results should be expected or desired from such a procedure? What other ways have you to suggest?

5. Discuss the following lesson plan, supporting your opinions briefly but forcefully:

Subject: Silent Reading *Class:* 5A
Type: Development
Aim: To help class comprehend the story.
To develop a taste for good literature.
Illustrative material: 1. Relief map of Africa.
2. Picture of Hercules holding up the world.
Procedure:
A. Introduction
Show class relief map of Africa.
The Atlas Mountains are in the North. A few of

the mountains are three miles high in some places. Do you not think that ancient people, with their lively imagination, could imagine that the highest mountain was the Giant Atlas? What natural features might suggest the body, legs, and white beard of the Giant? What would give rise to a story that he held the sky on his shoulders?

B. Children read story "How Hercules Held up the Sky"

C. Ask questions.
   1. Why was the hero seeking the Garden of Hesperides?
   2. How was this a hard task?
   3. How did Hercules convince the maidens that he would be successful?
   4. What sight did he see on the Island?
   5. What do you enjoy in the description of the Giant?
   6. Why did Atlas want to get the apples?
   7. What is funny in the way Atlas acted after Hercules took the sky?
   8. Show how Hercules was quickwitted in dealing with Atlas.

D. New and difficult words written on board; meanings explained; children use dictionary.

E. Dramatize the story.

6. What values were probably derived from the lesson for which the following plan was prepared?

School: P. S. —— *Class:* 4 A-1
Date: December 14 *Type:* Test
Subject: English-Reading
"Jemima's Adventure"—*The Kendall Fourth Reader* (Heath).
Aim: To test for comprehension and speed in reading "Jemima's Adventure." Silent reading.
Illustrative material: Textbooks. Difficult words written on board.

Procedure:

a. "Today we are going to find out which of you read most quickly and yet most understandingly."

b. Difficult words attacked. Have class look at words. Ask for explanation of words. Submit meanings not known.

c. When signal is given every one reads specified story.

d. Time called.

e. Paper distributed.

f. Directions given as to method of answering questions.

g. Ten questions—multiple choice.

h. Correct papers in class. Directions given for method of correction.

i. Collect papers according to their numerical value.

Questions:

1. The men *ate, hunted, fished, explored.* (hunted)
2. The women and children *lived, played, sang, worked.* (worked)
3. Jemima had *two, three, four, five* friends. (two)
4. The current took them *across, near* or *away from* the opposite bank. (across)
5. The girls were *playing in, paddling, splashing* the water. (splashing)
6. *Three, five* Indian braves waded out to the canoe. (five)
7. *Three people, ten people, no one* reached the girls. (no one)
8. Bits of their clothes were fastened to *flowers, bushes, branches of trees.* (bushes)
9. They walked in the *same,* the *right,* the *wrong* direction in which the Indians seemed to be traveling. (same)
10. The Indians could do nothing but *stay, fight, run away* when the girls' fathers came. (run away)

(452 words in entire selection: 239 on page 93, and 213 on page 92. Time: 5 minutes. When time is called

pupils place a mark near last word read. Compute number of words read in one minute.)

Assignment: Write a short story, in your own words, about "Jemima's Adventure."

7. Study the following lesson plan and be prepared to discuss its merits and demerits in class. If possible, teach the lesson unrevised to one group of a fourth year class, and *revised* to another group. Note results and report for discussions.

Class: 4A–1
Type: Development
Subject: Reading
Book: Story Hour Readings, by Hartwell
Selection: "The First Printer"

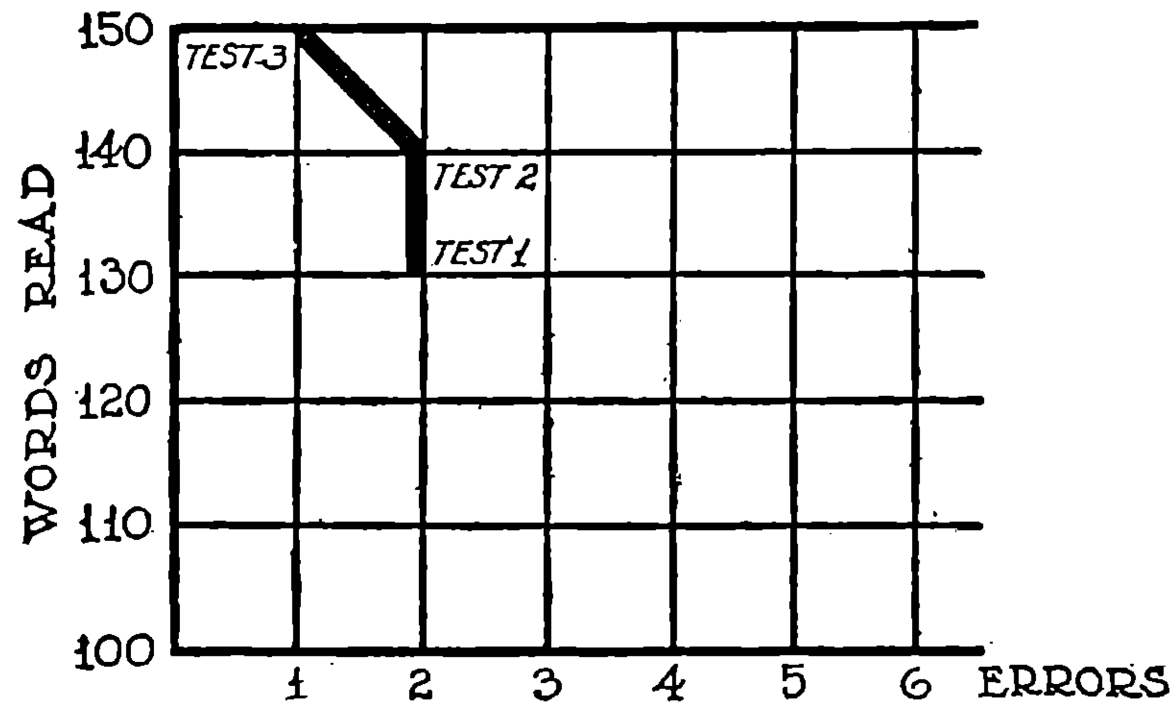
Aim: To get the thought from the printed page quickly and accurately.

Illustrative material: Egyptian tomb, Indian inscriptions, printing press—pictures of these three subjects.

Procedure:

1. How many children have ever been to visit a museum?
2. How many have seen old manuscripts in the museum?
3. Write *manuscripts* on board; explain meaning: manu = hand; script = write.
4. How did the Indians record their deeds? (berry juice on bark)
5. How did the Egyptians record their deeds? (on stone, papyrus)
6. In what manner did the monks record the deeds of the day? (by hand)
7. What do we use to record our deeds? (printing press)
8. In our readers we have a story about "The First Printing Press".
9. How many children would like to read a story about the first printing press?
10. Points to be remembered in reading:
    a. Speed.
    b. Accuracy.
    c. Understanding—no lip movement.

11. Directions:
    a. Six minutes to read selection silently.
    b. Put x in pencil after last word read when teacher says stop.
    c. Test after reading—explain test.
       Victor has red, *black*, blond hair.
       To-day is a rainy, *sunny*, gloomy day.
12. Read selection.
13. Take test—figure out number of words read.
14. Explain graph—Similar test to be given every two weeks.



Multiple-choice questions given.

One evening in summer nearly fifteen, five, eight, a hundred years ago a stranger arrived in the town of Haarlem.

Haarlem was in Norway, the North, Netherlands.

The stranger was poorly, richly, modestly, dressed.

B. Group Research Topics

1. A study of Chapter VII, "Training in Thinking," in Boyd H. Bode's *Fundamentals of Education;* Chapter IV, "Habit Formation," in William James's *The Principles of Psychology*, Volume I; Chapter IV, "Formation of Study Habits," in H. D. Kitson's *How to Use Your Mind;* Chapter II,

"Useful Habits of Work in Library and School", in R. L. LYMAN'S *The Mind at Work*.

2. A review of J. A. WILEY'S *Practice Exercises in Supervised Study and Assimilative Reading*.

3. A comparative study of five or more modern manuals for reading in the intermediate or middle grades. Chart the various methods and devices for improving (a) speed or comprehension in silent reading; (b) memorization; (c) vocabulary building; or (d) span of recognition.

4. A comparative study of the contributions of any group of the following investi~ators to the standardizing of tests: Thorndike, Terman, McCall, Gates, W. S. Monroe, W. S. Gray, M. A. Burgess, F. J. Kelly, Courtis, Haggerty.

5. A study of GATES'S *The Improvement of Reading*, Chapter IV, "Remedial Instruction for Deficiencies in Paragraph Comprehension"; Chapter V, "Remedial Instruction for Deficiencies in Phrase and Sentence Comprehension."

6. A study of W. S. MONROE'S *Measuring the Results of Teaching* Chapter II, "The Measurement of Ability in Reading", and Chapter II, "The Measurement of Scores and Correcting Defects in Reading."

7. A tabulation of practical suggestions as found in manuals accompanying any number of currently used reading systems.

8. A tabulated study of Chapter XI, "Skillful Silent Reading", in PARKER'S *Types of Elementary Teaching and Learning*.

9. A chart of suggestions from RUSSELL'S *Classroom Tests*.

10. A chapter by chapter review of GERMANE and GERMANE'S *Silent Reading* in so far as intermediate grade reading is discussed.

C. INDIVIDUAL RESEARCH TOPICS

1. Recent studies in the reading of various subjects reveal the fact that pupils who pass in history, geography, and other branches of the school curriculum are likely to be those who are able to read most comprehendingly. A somewhat similar study may be made of the abilities of a class of pupils in one of the middle grades, with a comparison of results with the thought expressed above.

2. A study of "Vocabulary Problems" (pages 145–150),

"Vocabulary Exercises" (pages 180–184), and "Vocabulary Building in Intermediate Grades" (pages 333–334) in HARRIS, DONOVAN, and ALEXANDER'S *Supervision and Teaching of Reading.*

3. A study of Chapter XI, "Attitudes Essential to Success in Reading and Study", pages 246–254, in YOAKAM'S *Reading and Study.*

4. A tabulation of suggestions gleaned from Chapter XV, "Reading and Study in Grades Four, Five, and Six", pages 365–429, *ibid.*

5. The preparation of a résumé of O'BRIEN'S *Silent Reading,* with special consideration of the middle grades.

6. A review of Chapter XVI, "Diagnosing Reading Defects", pages 321–354, or Chapter XVII, "Remedial Work in Reading", pages 355–383, in ANDERSON and DAVIDSON'S *Reading Objectives.*

7. A study of vocabulary building in one or more of the following texts: SMITH'S *One Hundred Ways of Teaching Silent Reading,* pages 67, 128–135; *Twenty-Fourth Yearbook,* pages 75–91, 94–95; PARKER'S *Types of Elementary Teaching and Learning,* pages 342–343, 371–373.

8. A review of one or more of the following chapters: Chapter XI, "The Factors of Efficient Recall", in BAGLEY'S *The Educative Process;* or Chapter IX, "Memory", Chapter X, "Association", Chapter XI, "Economy in Memory and Association", Chapter XII, "The Applied Psychology of Memory and Association", in COLVIN'S *The Learning Process.*

9. A résumé of Chapter II, "The Measurement of Ability in Reading", in MONROE'S *Measuring the Results of Teaching.*

10. A review of "Materials for instruction in reading": *Twenty-Fourth Yearbook,* Chapter VII, pages 161–172; 211–218.

11. A report upon O'BRIEN'S *Reading: Its Psychology and Pedagogy,* Chapter VIII, "Reading Difficulties: Their Diagnosis and Remedial Treatment through the Use of Standardized Tests", or, Chapter IX, upon treatment through clinical method.

12. A review of H. L. DONOVAN'S "Clinical Studies in Reading".

13. A review of J. L. HENDERSON'S *Materials and Methods in the Middle Grades,* with special reference to reading problems.

14. A review of CLAUDE C. CRAWFORD'S *Technique of Study*, with special reference to reading.

D. THEME ASSIGNMENTS

1. The recent movement in scientific measurements as it affects the silent reading problem in the middle grades.
2. A supervisor's adverse criticism of the aim of a teacher's silent reading lesson. Discuss the possible reasons for the criticism.
3. The good and poor points in an observed silent reading lesson in the intermediate grades.
4. The reading time schedule as it is affected by the preponderant presence of low I. Q. pupils.
5. How a skillful teacher conducts a memorization lesson with backward pupils of the fourth year.
6. The effect of a large foreign element upon the reading progress of a normally intelligent class in the middle grades.
7. Characteristics of a good reading textbook in literature for the middle grades.
8. The value of silent reading in the life of a fifth-year pupil.
9. The comparative, permanent worth of oral and silent reading.
10. How to evaluate a silent reading lesson in history (or any other subject).
11. The chief purposes of reading tests.
12. The pupils' part in a silent reading lesson.
13. Making the most of reading diagnosis through standard tests.
14. "The teacher's aim seemed to be more to get a mark down for the pupils than really to give the pupils something worth while. On the other hand, the pupils' aim was to get a satisfactory mark. The teacher marked each pupil as he or she recited." Write a brief criticism of this statement.

PART IV

READING IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL GRADES—THE PERIOD OF EXTENSIVE SILENT READING AND EXPRESSIVE ORAL READING

CHAPTER XV

TEACHING CHILDREN HOW TO ENJOY LITERATURE

The problems of Part IV.—The pupils have now advanced beyond the six years of the elementary school to the junior high school, that is, to the seventh year of their school life. By this time, they should be able to read orally with such expression as will imply an understanding of what the author had it in mind to convey. They should be able to read silently with pleasure and efficiency in a variety of subjects. The special reading problem of the teacher of junior high school classes should be—in addition to affording ampler opportunity for her pupils to read extensively—providing the ways and means for the refinement of their reading abilities. The boys and girls of the seventh, eighth, ninth, and higher years should be helped in their oral reading better to detect the finer shades of an author's meaning and feeling and then so to mold their expression that their audience will react with sympathetic understanding. Furthermore, in silent reading, pupils of the junior, and senior, high schools should display greater and greater command of the tools of scholarship—the dictionary and other reference books, for instance—and an ever growing ability to study with economy of time, efficiency of method, and satisfactoriness of results. It will be the purpose of Chapters XV and XVI to present teaching procedures which, if properly

adapted to conditions and modified according to circumstances and needs, should lead pupils to larger enjoyment of imaginative literature and to a better understanding of the best way to read factual subject matter.

The main points of Chapter XV.—Following an orientating section explaining the aims and problems of the junior high school teacher of reading, this chapter treats of

1. Certain special features of teaching reading for enjoyment—such as the art of oral reading and the use of composition as an aid to appreciation.
2. Methods of teaching certain common types of literary material, as exemplified in sample lessons.
3. The teaching of the mechanics of literature in such a manner as not to kill appreciation.

Problems of the Junior High School Reading Teacher

Special problems of the junior high school.—While there is no definite line of abrupt distinction between the junior high school grades and those of the elementary school, the upper three years have nevertheless special problems of their own. The principles and methods for the seventh, eighth, and ninth years—the years that have come very generally to make up the junior high school unit in public educational administration—should not only reflect the teaching technique of previous years but also mark a more or less pronounced advance in keeping with the growing needs of early adolescent pupils.

Before taking our special problem of reading under consideration, it will, therefore, be well to touch briefly upon the work of junior high schools as a whole, but, in particular, upon two of its larger phases as these affect the teaching of reading.

Administratively, the junior high school is coming into its own more and more as its fundamental reasons for being are recognized and accepted. Though still housed very often in the same building with the elementary grades, or much less frequently with the senior high school, as time goes on the junior high school tends more and more to occupy buildings and enjoy equipment especially designed for its pupils. A generally obvious distinction of the junior high school is its departmentalized course, with its accompanying system of subject promotion. Each teacher of the three junior high school grades is a specialist in a subject or in a group of usually not more than two closely related subjects. Under such conditions the teaching of reading is not likely to be regarded as a teaching duty except by the English teacher, and especially by the teacher of literature. As a rule, the teacher of any other subject considers her problem as one of content and looks for results in the field in which she has been appointed. This is an unfortunate attitude since, as we know, ability to read one subject understandingly does not mean that there exists a like ability to read another subject. Every teacher in the junior high school should, therefore, regard herself as a teacher of reading.

Methodologically, the junior high school differs from the elementary school not only in its organization and administration but also, more fundamentally, in the psychological, physiological, and sociological state of development of its pupils. Children at the junior high school stage of growth are approaching maturity; some will have reached it before the close of the ninth year. They are thinking more in terms of adulthood than ever in the past. In their varied reading appetites they incline toward the adventurous, the exploratory, the

romantic, the inquiring, perhaps toward the omnivorous. Individualism and gregariousness are blended in them, perplexingly at times. Vocational interests are strong. In brief, there is every need for special study of individual cases by sympathetic teachers who, appreciating the types of problems of early adolescence, know how to counsel and guide not merely in the intellectual pursuits of pupils but in practically the whole gamut of human wants and desires. The planning of reading programs should recognize the oftentimes conflicting tendencies of this difficult but deeply important period of life.

There will still be much for the teacher of junior high school reading to do in helping the formation of correct reading habits. Children may not have mastered this habit or that, though general, even if variable, progress will frequently have been made. Furthermore, in teaching upper-grade pupils to read, greater attention must be paid to such larger principles of sound method as those that have been referred to throughout this book. Among these may be mentioned more especially the socialization of the classroom to help stimulate interest, the differentiation of work to meet individual needs, and the supervision of reading to insure not only wise expenditure of time and effort but also the cultivation of proper reading attitudes, habits, and skills.

The junior high school reading program.—As has already been said, there is, or should be, no definite mark of abrupt distinction between the sixth and the seventh grade. That is to say, there should be no greater break pedagogically than there is naturally in the lives of the pupils. The early adolescent period has its own characteristics. These have been briefly stated in the first pages of the present chapter. Progress in reading should, there-

fore, be normal, leading to broader, higher planes of achievement in the activities begun in the lower classes. Much of what has been explained in the previous chapters will thus be seen to apply equally well to teaching situations discussed in this chapter, or at least much will be readily adaptable to junior high school conditions.

Wider reading opportunities and the refinement of reading habits are two of the special characteristics of a junior high school reading program. Reflection upon the points stressed in the preceding section will trace the general trend of the reading course. Inasmuch as the brunt of the matter will rest on the shoulders of the teacher of literature, her opportunity is unquestionably and impressively great. Since the world of literature very often includes books or articles of a factual as well as an imaginative sort, the teacher of this specialty may find herself called upon to give instruction in the technique of reading almost any subject. It is one of the principal aims and objectives of the junior high school reading program to continue training pupils in efficient study habits while at the same time refining more and more their reading tastes. "Wholesome interests in reading, the habit of reading current events and books and magazines of real worth, the sources of different types of reading materials, and standards of selection are emphasized."[1]

It will have been noted that reading material has been broadly divided into literature and content subjects, or, perhaps more exactly, imaginative and factual matter. In this chapter we shall devote our attention to the first, the teaching of imaginative literature; in the next chapter we shall consider the second, the teaching of factual sub-

[1]*Twenty-Fourth Yearbook*, page 25.

jects, such as history and geography. Before we enter upon this discussion several important classroom factors should be set down for general reflection and guidance.

Importance of the teacher in junior high school reading. —It need hardly be said that the teacher of literature should be a widely read person of genuine cultivation. This statement might be indeed a commonplace if it did not suggest a situation far from satisfactory. Just as water will not rise above its own level so will the taste of many children fail to rise above the culture level of their teachers. The exceptional child will be superior, happily, to his pedagogic environment; but the registers of classrooms necessarily include normal pupils, for the most part, even though, it is true, the word *normal* includes a rather broad area of widely separated limits.

Method without content is a dry shell or mold at best, hardly refreshing and inspiring. It must not be made a fetish or idol, but an instrument for interpretative use, for efficient service—a teacher's servant, not her master. Many a visitor has left a classroom regretting the lavish display of technique bodied forth with far too little of that deep, rich knowledge either of books or of life which one should like to see. Nothing in a teacher of literature can take the place of the culture that comes of wide, discriminating reading and wholesome life and living contacts, attitudes, and viewpoints outside and inside of the classroom. No teacher of either elementary or higher grades should be wholly dependent upon others, either official superiors, colleagues, or authors, for her acceptance or rejection of the proper reading materials for children. She should take pride in knowing the best herself.

In a word, the teacher who presumes to teach reading in any grade, but more especially in the higher grades,

must in all honesty be well furnished in the things of the mind, the heart, and the spirit. She must herself enjoy the books that she essays to have her pupils enjoy and cherish. Personality will never count for more than in the class-room of the higher grades.

Importance of individual differences in junior high school reading.—In the seventh grade some pupils may display fifth-grade abilities, others abilities on even a lower level, while a few may fairly astonish the teacher with their mature grasp and power. Proper grading should, of course, tend to minimize extremes, and individual instruction or sensible grouping very largely takes care of any remaining disparity in achievement. It is important that each pupil, in these upper grades particularly, have the benefit of unfettered personal reaction[1] to what he reads and that he be encouraged to express it honestly. In only rare instances will the teacher's state of mind and feeling precisely register those of a whole class. And rightly so. Her practical experience and wide reading should have meant something in the nature of broadened mental horizons. Indeed, one good way of killing a child's interest in poetry is to impose one's own views of interpretation too strongly upon him.

For this reason or that a pupil will here and there show marked inability in oral reading but superior comprehension in silent reading. Another will exhibit the mentality of a child several years older or younger than the normal pupil of the grade. Through formal and informal tests, the limitations of the class members will be specifically discovered. Just as in the lower grades, both groups and individuals will have to be taken in hand and exercises

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[1]Read Abbott's "Reading Tastes of High School Pupils".

specially prepared to improve the various skills that make for excellence in reading.

Recent studies seem to show that graduates from elementary schools are not always the proficient readers that junior high school teachers would like to see in their classrooms. Although improvement in silent reading methods, and more gratifying results in oral reading, may be noted in pupils of the intermediate grades, too great an expectation must not be indulged. Slow and inaccurate readers may be distressingly numerous in the seventh year. This is said with no thought of holding the teachers of lower-grade classes wholly responsible for their pupils' inability to read in the upper years. Other factors enter into the situation. Junior high school textbooks, for one thing, have yet to exhibit, very generally, a deep appreciation of such matters as (a) the relation between language difficulty and content comprehension and (b) the pupils' possible degree of preparedness for the advanced work that will be required of them in so many technical subjects as the average curriculum includes. It would also seem to be true, as has been previously intimated, that the higher the child advances in school the more likely is he to find himself in the classroom of a teacher who is primarily interested in her subject matter and too little in the learning technique of her pupils. Indeed, wasteful study habits—if habits they should be called—are all too common in most of our higher schools, including the college and the university.

There may be discernible in junior high school pupils a culture background much more limited than one might expect to note. Some children from "reading homes," or with a natural or well-trained flair for the printed page, it will be gratifying to teach; but there will be many

others. All must receive the teacher's attention even though all may not, may never, attain the same levels of reading achievement as their more able or more fortunate classmates. Extensive reading will frequently be determined quite as much by environment and previously conditioned experiences as by the teacher. At all events, the better readers and the normal readers should not be held back by the presence of the less rapid or the slow. Each group, each individual pupil as far as practicable, should receive the attention he needs.

Importance of freedom in the junior high school reading class.—In the discipline of a junior high school reading class there should be an air of freedom under wise, constructive guidance. Only in an atmosphere of unrestraint can the appreciative spirit normally flourish. The source of this atmosphere must be largely in the teacher herself, though the school as a whole will very often induce or contribute to it. Permanently satisfying reading habits may not infrequently be attributable to such an influence alone.

Some Aspects of Teaching Reading for Enjoyment

Enjoyment and study.—As has been suggested in an earlier page, there need not be any necessary conflict between reading as an enjoyable occupation for leisure time and reading as study. Indeed, well-directed study may provide the keenest enjoyment. It is true that that study which is merely a dull, cheerless, meaningless drill-grind, is not particularly enjoyable. On the other hand, the art of teaching in the upper grades, as in every other grade, must be so ordered as to prevent the lowering of standards to the level of mere amusement. A middle

ground is possible of attainment; for recreatory and work-type are not antithetical terms.[1] Even in the realm of literature they may be found side by side.

The art of expressive oral reading.—Expressive oral reading must find a fitting place in upper-grade reading programs. The teacher who neglects to afford junior high school pupils the pleasure-giving opportunity of this truly fine art is making an irreparable mistake. There is no competition in methods. Silent reading will lose none of its effectiveness through a properly proportioned, supplementary or parallel interest in oral reading. It is too well founded in the needs of life for that. Oral reading before a real audience must retain an important place, if not, as in the past, the all-important place. The reasons are obvious enough. In the junior high school grades, oral reading is, therefore, still to be accorded its part in the reading program. But if upper-grade oral reading is to hold its own it will have to be done *con expressione*—to borrow a term from the musician's glossary. The social values should stand to the fore and must govern our aims and procedure.

What are these social values? First, there is the pleasure the good reader conveys to his audience. Second, there is the cultural benefit for himself and for others.

Pleasure for a listener is derived not only from a reader's clearness, enunciation, accuracy of pronunciation and phrasing, smoothness and sweetness of tone, and reasonable rate, but far more from his personal understanding of the thought and from his sympathy with the feeling of the selection read. If all of these factors are made plain by word and example, children's oral reading will receive

[1]An excellent discussion will be found in W. S. MONROE's *Directing Learning in the High School*, pages 405–445.

proper and fitting motivation. As a form of desirable behavior it will function well. Special exercises must, however, be provided for training. Motivation, the best in the world, is not sufficient without "follow-up" practice and worthy example.

Cultural benefit is a difficult term to explain. Perhaps it is best understood when one is conscious of experienced emotions haunting us long after a music recital or a public address. For days, months, even years, we can recapture the thrill if it was genuine to begin with. The teacher's personality will make itself felt here. Her voice may continue to be heard with pleasure a decade or more beyond the hour that she herself has probably forgotten.

Audience situation.—The practical question of audience-situation has been treated elsewhere[1] in connection with reading in earlier grades. It is, therefore, only necessary to review some of the means that skillful teachers have found useful in creating a genuine audience feeling in the classroom. In a general way, the student may gather much from a careful study of many of the lessons reported or summarized in various parts of this book. It is intended here merely to emphasize a few broad principles.

1. *A reader is likely to interest a hearer when he himself is interested.* This is a truism, no doubt, but one in constant need of repetition. Applying this principle, the teacher should provide frequent opportunity for pupils to read what they have themselves discovered in books, periodicals, or newspapers. A "reading circle" will prove its worth. Each child has been commissioned, let us say, to read outside the classroom and to bring in his own most

[1]Pages 300–301.

interesting selection, prepared to read it aloud to his classmates. Small reading groups, each group made up of congenial spirits with common interests, may also accomplish much. Several such groups of pupils may function in the same room at the same time.

2. *A reader is likely to interest a hearer when he displays his own personality through what he reads.* The teacher who knows her class will be ready to provide timely and interesting matter in dramatic form. In few other ways may the springs of childish personality be so refreshed.

3. *A reader who varies his themes is likely to find hearers.* The teacher should so arrange her reading selections that adequate variety is had from week to week. Too long dwelling upon any type of literature becomes monotonous, and monotony will chill the enthusiasm of most audiences.

4. *A reader who has chosen an unhackneyed piece is more eagerly heard than one who selects a commonplace topic.* Literature, both old and new, will provide much which through sheer novelty should quicken the attention of an audience.

5. *A public occasion will often provide an audience-situation.* Too little attention has been paid to the possibilities of the classroom itself as a place of public audience. Classroom programs, simple, timely, varied, and ably presented, deserve a larger place than teachers sometimes accord them.

Composition as a useful aid in the teaching of literature.—In past days, teachers frequently effected a close alliance between literature and composition periods. One followed the other almost as a matter of course. The subject matter of many a composition period was derived from

the reading matter. There was nothing essentially wrong in this, except, on the one hand, that it tended to reduce composition—the art of invention—to a mere reproductive process, and, on the other, that it essayed to view literature as a factual storehouse rather than as a thing of life to be appreciated best when enjoyed in those delicate, subtle ways that find response in one's inmost being but are not easily definable and are all but destroyed if too minutely analyzed.

Literature, of course, will always be one of the sources of the creative imagination, one of the inspirations of the art of writing and speaking. Indeed, a proper study of literature should offer manifold opportunities for creative activities.[1]

1. *Suggested composition opportunities in the study of literature:*

- a. Oral composition
  - A discussion pro and con upon this or that point raised in reading
  - A radio talk
  - A travelog
  - A conversation upon "The best story or poem I've read this month"
- b. Written composition
  - A blurb for book jackets
  - A review for a class or school paper
  - A dramatic criticism
  - A press announcement or advertisment for a monthly bulletin
  - A discussion outline
  - A synopsis for note books

[1]JEFFERSON and PECKHAM'S *Creative Prose Writing* will offer many adaptable suggestions.

A table of contents
A travel booklet
A "who's who"
An imaginative story-ending
A conversation which might have happened
A poetizing upon emotional reactions

2. *Creative speaking and writing.*—Many teachers are far too little aware of the innate abilities of their pupils. Far too much of our school work is pure imitation or repetition, one had almost said sheer mimicry. Gifted children may be in our midst—children capable of extemporaneous speaking, of writing a poem, a short story, an essay, or a play. Reading models may be utilized as a helpful ally in stimulating a bright pupil to greater effort, but the work he does will still be his very own. Under the alert, intelligent guidance of a keenly sympathetic teacher dormant possibilities may well be awakened. We have seen boys of junior high school age write very respectable essays on such a subject as "Sports", in creative emulation of Bacon on "Studies." We have witnessed so skillful a dramatization of certain portions of *Treasure Island* that this thrilling story must have had an abiding influence in later years. Discussion and criticism, which had preceded and followed these exercises, in themselves proved most fruitful. A class "book of poems, essays, plays, and stories", collected from the best of the term, has made a worthy contribution to the reading periods of many a succeeding class.

It may be unnecessary to say that in all such creative work the teacher will not expect too much, too mature a product, too high or too even a level of achievement and excellence. If among the benefits derived there be merely

these three, the effort will not have been in vain: (1) a deeper understanding and appreciation of literature; (2) a stimulus to, possibly, important future endeavor; and (3) a contribution of additional reading matter for class use.

Difficulties inherent in the teaching of longer selections.—Before the junior high school, selections offered for pupils' reading are necessarily short. Beginning in the seventh grade, however, some longer selections are read each year. The teaching of a longer selection presents some special difficulties, the most important of which are difficulties of sustaining interest and maintaining discipline during the sequence of lessons necessary to the reading of the selection.

Sustaining interest.—Everybody knows how interesting a subject may become under the inspiration of a gifted teacher, and how highly resolved one has often been to read further in the field that such a teacher may have opened up so entrancingly. And yet, how disappointingly, perhaps embarrassingly, difficult it has later been to carry forward the eager quest once the teacher's presence has been withdrawn! Many mature students will recall an experience or two of this sort. It may be said in passing that a college course is frequently superior to privately conducted study for the simple reason that the student's interest is more likely to be repeatedly sustained, and his own intention strengthened by the instructor's will or by the collective will of the class.

Maintaining discipline.—Another troublesome problem, for the inexperienced teacher at any rate, is that of maintaining discipline throughout a lesson-sequence based upon the reading of a longer masterpiece. This difficulty arises largely from the fact that youthful attention flags

easily unless interest is kept at a high level. In fact, in all teaching situations, as every experienced teacher knows, there is the most intimate connection between discipline and interest. But, let it be remembered, sustained attention is a matter of growth and training, which may demand much of time and much more of patience. Furthermore, children differ in this respect as in every other. A pupil's capacities and acquired characteristics may include attention in marked degree, and then again they may not.

The following ways and means of sustaining interest, commanding attention, and maintaining discipline may be in point:

In general:

1. Adequately prepare and sensibly exemplify sound pedagogic principles.
2. Cultivate a reasonable enthusiasm for teaching.
3. Use personal authority judiciously.
4. Keep alive a keen sense of humor.

In particular:

1. Provide a motive not only at the beginning of the lesson-series but from time to time during each reading period.
2. Vary the motive or appeal.
3. Prepare the lesson-series so that the pupil feels a sense of sequence.
4. Make generous provision for pupil self-activity and self-expression—and "keep yourself out of the picture", as one teacher has expressed it.
5. Set a reasonable time-limit to class discussion, reduce your own contribution to a minimum, "keep things moving" from point to point, and prevent "dragging out".

6. Remember that every trivial thing need not be explained, discussed, even understood by all the pupils, and also that levels of understanding may be as various among pupils as among teachers.
7. Reflect that children differ in their capacity to assimilate literature just as adults do.
8. Maintain a sense of honor toward youthful error, occasionally recalling your own errors when in a classroom seat.
9. Permit re-reading when it seems necessary, for to re-read may be a profitable activity, and is, when to deepen an impression or to better the understanding is the objective.
10. Provide a bulletin board or a chart for class and individual book-reading records.
11. Encourage pupils to seek guidance from yourself and also at times, and under proper conditions, from one another—asking for help is not necessarily collusion.
12. Plan interesting "accidentals" to stimulate pupils to read such and such a book.
13. Introduce appropriate and timely illustrative material, visual, auditory, and, if possible, tactual.
14. Arrange an occasional visit to museums and historic places.
15. Arrange for the dramatization of certain parts of the reading selections.
16. Conduct an expressive oral reading circle.
17. Have brief reports discussed briefly in class.

Circumstances will determine the opportunity to use any one or all of these helps, but, so far as it is practicable,

they should be used at the appropriate time and in the appropriate place. Ingenuity will suggest still further ways and means of stimulating interest, sustaining attention, and maintaining the only kind of discipline that counts after all—self-discipline, the control of oneself from within, which is genuine, rather than restraint from without, which may be purely adventitious.

Five Illustrations of Upper-Grade Reading Method

The following typical procedures will be illustrated below: (a) teaching a short poem; (b) teaching a long poem; (c) teaching a short prose selection; (d) teaching a long prose selection; (e) teaching the drama. Wide reading of literary masterpieces, especially of the type to be taught, clear understanding of the author's meaning, and sympathetic appreciation of the spirit of the selection on the teacher's part are taken for granted.

Teaching a short poem[1]

The Poem: "The Star",[2] by Sara Teasdale

A white star born in the evening glow
Looked to the round green world below,
And saw a pool in a wooded place
That held like a jewel her mirrored face.
She said to the pool: "Oh, wondrous deep,
I love you, I give you my light to keep.
Oh, more profound than the moving sea
That never has shown myself to me!
Oh, fathomless as the sky is far,
Hold forever your tremulous star!"

[1]Read Abbott and Trabue's "A Measure of the Ability to Judge Poetry."

[2]From Sara Teasdale's *Rivers to the Sea.* Reprinted by permission of The Macmillan Company, publishers.

But out of the woods as night grew cool
A brown pig came to the little pool;
It grunted and splashed and waded in
And the deepest place but reached its chin.
The water gurgled with tender glee
And the mud churned up in it turbidly.

The star grew pale and hid her face
In a bit of floating cloud like lace.

The Procedure

Aims: (1) To enjoy a poet's vision, (2) to study how a poet transports his vision to the reader.

Motivation: What do we see when we look at a flower? A tree? A star in the sky? A pool of water? Discussion, children probably mentioning merely material things. Teacher suggests other possibilities through association of ideas: A flower may represent a friend's thoughtfulness on one's birthday. A tree may remind us of protection on a hot summer's day. A star may seem to twinkle kindliness. A pool's calm surface may suggest peace. The poet differs from most people in several ways: First, when he sees things they seem to mean more to him than to others; secondly, he is able through the magic of words to make others see things as he sees them or, it may be, to see even more than he has seen.

Silent Reading: Pupils and teachers read the poem silently, trying as they read to be present with the poet and see what she sees as she stands at the side of the pool.

Discussion: What three scenes have you noted in this poem? Suggest a title for each of the three scenes or pictures.

Oral reading: By pupils, so expressively as to make the three scenes or pictures very, very clear to the audience. Several pupils may read aloud, each striving to put his own interpretation into the part of the poem he renders.

Conversation: (1) About pictorial details, such as "a white star in the evening glow", "the round green world below," "a pool", "a wooded place", "like a jewel", etc. (2) About word-values, such as sight words, sound words, action words. Note expressiveness of each word, such as: *mirrored*, *wondrous*,

moving, *fathomless*, *tremulous*, etc. Pupils should try to see and hear the sights and sounds suggested.

Oral re-reading: By teacher, to bring out more vividly not only the whole thought of the poem but also contributing details.

Conclusion or *assignment:* One of the following: (1) a written statement in prose or verse upon the question: What other "brown pigs" have you seen at home, in school, in the street, in a train, at a theater? or (2) memorization for end-of-month class assembly period during which each pupil is permitted (a) to recite his favorite poem from memory, (b) to give a two-minute talk upon his favorite reading selection or outside extensive reading, or (c) to read the most appealing piece of prose of the month; (3) reading other poems on stars and the sky in general, either outside of class or during library period—poems such as may be found in a children's encyclopedia or in a book like Stevenson's *Home Book of Verse* (Holt). At least two poems should be thus read, and sound and sight words. as well as larger pictorial details, noted for future classroom use, Failing library facilities, the teacher may mimeograph or type sufficient copies of selected poems for assignment purposes.

The written statement and "other poems" may be made the basis of an interesting and profitable oral English period.

Interpretative questions and suggestions.—1. What do you find of chief value for you in this poem? To what extent would your reaction make you modify the aims as set forth above? 2. How otherwise may the teacher motivate such a lesson? More or less wisely than in the case just studied? Why? 3. Justify the omission of illustrative material, if you believe such omission justifiable. Otherwise, defend your viewpoint. 4. Note the interplay of oral and silent reading; of reading and discussion. 5. How does the teacher avoid overdoing the moral? 6. Note the choice of conclusion or assignment. Which

would you make it? What principle do you observe in such a choice? Note the suggestion that the "written statement" might be in verse. 7. What commendation may be advanced for this? To what extent is the conclusion or assignment satisfactory? What other possible assignment can you yourself suggest? 8. About how many reading periods does such a lesson-plan presuppose?

Teaching a long poem

THE POEM: *Evangeline*, by Henry W. Longfellow

TEACHER'S AND PUPILS' PREPARATION

Teacher's preparation: Evangeline is a poem admirably suited to junior high school extensive reading at home or during the library hour. This does not mean, however, that no instruction is necessary. The teacher should see to it that extensive reading is not desultory, purposeless reading. It is her duty to "set the stage", as it were, to the end that some of the hidden values of the poem may become apparent and therefore appreciated. Furthermore, a not too detailed understanding of the story-plot should be expected of the pupils. Brief but adequate observations should be recorded in the pupil's "book of outside reading." These observations may take the form of that suggested on page 346, or they may be more or less elaborate. The teacher's preparation should be obvious. She should have analyzed the pedagogic potentialities. She should know something of the poem's origin. She should be able to read it intelligently, sympathetically, and expressively. She should have worked out some scheme of oral and silent reading, with in-class and out-of-class assignments. She should have prepared suitable questions, helpful suggestions, and tests for the pupils' consideration. In a word, she should have studied the poem so carefully as to reveal its possibilities in the reading life of her class.

Pupils' preparation: Pupils may well be directed to make special studies tending the better to bring out and illuminate the poet's thought and feeling. Among such studies may be

the following: (a) the geography of *Evangeline*; (b) the historical background; (c) the outline of the story; (d) the pronunciation of proper names and of French words; (e) a "Who's Who" of the chief characters.

The Procedure

General aim: To enjoy a beautiful American poetic masterpiece.

Specific aims: (1) To add another portrait or two to the mental gallery of worth-while people in book and story; (2) To feel with the poet the pathos of Evangeline's quest; (3) To see with the mind's eye the successive pictures in this drama of human life; (4) To appreciate the poet's art in word and imagery.

Motivation: The story of the poem's origin: Longfellow and his friend, Nathaniel Hawthorne, the novelist, seated at an alumni banquet of Bowdoin College, their alma mater. The chat about Hawthorne's prospective story of the Acadians. His doubt as to the wisdom of writing such a story in prose. Longfellow's request that he be permitted to use it poetically if Hawthorne finally decided to give it up. Hawthorne's generous gift of the theme to his friend. "Let us read the poem and try to see what the poet did with this gift."

Oral reading of Prelude: The teacher will read the Prelude orally, the pupils continuing with Part I, silently, after a brief discussion based upon such questions as these: 1. What is the purpose of a prelude in music? Of a prelude to a poem? 2. How do you think this prelude prepares you for what is to follow? 3. If the class is familiar with "The Vision of Sir Launfal" what comparison can be noted between this Prelude to *Evangeline* and the Preludes to the two parts of Lowell's poem? The teacher will read these Preludes orally and then re-read the Prelude to *Evangeline*, the class commenting upon them for a minute or two.

The need of a cultivated voice on the teacher's part should be apparent. Indeed, in every grade her reading to the class may be a distinct contribution to the cultural life of the pupils. Opportunities for such teacher activity must not be neglected.

Follow-Up Studies[1]

Tests[2]

I. This test may consist of the scoring of the pupils' ability to name certain persons described in various parts of the poem. Well selected lines, such as, for example, "The wealthiest farmer of Grand Pré", may be cited, and the pupils required to identify the person suggested. Ten to twenty such persons will be enough.

II. This test is somewhat similar to Test One but considers the various speakers in the poem. The pupils score their ability to name the speaker of a passage read, such as: "You are convened this day by his Majesty's orders. ." Again, ten to twenty will be sufficient.

III. A test can be prepared to rivet attention upon the main parts of the story of the poem. From a series of simple statements or headings, such as, "The destruction of Grand Pré," the pupils will select the one which best entitles the main part or central theme. Or, a series may be devised to bring out the main purpose of Part I or Part II of the poem.

IV. A test somewhat similar to Test III may be devised to test for significant details. Five or ten sentences are selected from the poem, and the pupils are directed to tell what circumstances each recalls to mind. For example: "Then there escaped from her lips a cry of terrible anguish."

V. A test may likewise be arranged to test the comprehension of the whole story. A topic is given out, and the pupils directed to write a paragraph or a few sentences upon it. Papers may then be exchanged and scored on three points, such as: accuracy of statement, completeness of significant details, and clearness.

A study program

A. Part I is read or re-read with attention, silently, in class, at home, or in the library—or part in each of these places. Pointed questions and suggestions are set the pupils, each aimed at a specific matter in the text. Through such questions and

[1]For fuller treatment of this and several of the other lesson-procedures consult the author's *Junior High School Literature Series—Book Three.*

[2]Completion, matching, true-false, and other tests may easily be constructed. See pages 222 ff and 301–305 for adaptable suggestions.

suggestions thought may be stimulated, elements of beauty indicated, comparisons with other poems or prose pieces made, special difficulties of interpretation explained, the most important parts of the poem shown more clearly, and certain lines singled out for memorization or further discussion and comment. Part II and the Postlude may be similarly treated. The essential nature of such a study as this is found in the revealment it encourages of the more meaningful, the more colorful passages of the poem. A caution: Do not carry this detailed study too far. Do not make of it a thorough partitioning of part from part, with a lifeless mass of fact and query as a result.

B. Volunteer assignments, for especially bright or interested pupils, may be well worth while. Such pupils may be encouraged to find (1) pictures for the mind's eye beyond the number studied by the whole class, or (2) figures of speech which make a particular appeal because of beauty or significance. Word study may be made a valuable part of a study program. Lists of proper names, personal or geographical, may be made out; lists of "strange" words may repay a more intimate scrutiny. A caution here: Avoid mere formal work. Make everything count toward a better understanding and appreciation of the poem. Excellent studies in figures of speech may be begun or carried forward from a reading of *Evangeline*. Longfellow is rich in tropes.

C. Oral reading of favorite passages leads to considerable interest in any classroom where it is wisely conducted. Utter freedom of choice should obtain.

D. Class projects may take the form of (1) a motion-picture scenario of six or more scenes, accompanied by "talkies"; (2) a dramatic program with class discussion of character-selection, scene-portrayal, and proper presentation before an audience; (3) a tourist's guide to "The Land of Evangeline"; (4) a reading circle for the reading of beautiful passages; (5) a museum gallery —the presentation of the most picturesque scenes with brief descriptive comment as for a lecture to a group of interested visitors to an art museum.

Interpretative questions and suggestions: 1. In what ways are the aims fulfilled? 2. How often does the pupil

have to read the poem? 3. To what extent is oral reading provided for? Silent reading? 4. A socialized period, we remember, is one in which teacher and class are partners in the learning process. To what degree does the teacher participate in this lesson? The pupils? 5. How is provision made for supervised or directed study? 6. At what points might illustrative material be used to advantage? 7. How is the principle of individual differences observed? 8. What opportunities are provided for expressive oral reading? 9. How many reading periods may be needed for teaching so long a masterpiece?

Teaching a short prose selection

THE SELECTION: "The Legend of Sleepy Hollow", by Washington Irving.

THE PROCEDURE

General Aim: To interest children in prose fiction of the better sort.

Specific aim: To enable children to enjoy the humor of amusing incidents and situations centering in an odd character.

Motivation: A brief chat about Irving's delight (1) in depicting odd characters, such as Rip Van Winkle; and (2) in mildly caricaturing certain historic Dutch persons, such as Peter Stuyvesant. Here is a story about a queer sort of teacher of the long, long ago. The name Ichabod itself must have been especially selected, for Ichabod is an ancient word meaning, "the glory has departed," while Crane, of course, means tall and more or less ungainly. The scene is at Sleepy Hollow in a region some twenty-odd miles north of New York, where Irving loved to roam, and near where he lived during his last years. "Sunnyside", Irving's home, is within easy walking distance south of Sleepy Hollow.

Silent reading: Pupils will read the whole story for the story's sake.

Discussion: What were the most humorous situations? (List these on the blackboard.) What justification did Irving

have for naming the "hero" as he did? (Oral reading of selected descriptions to prove the point for or against.)

Oral reading: Purpose—to determine the most humorous situation. The entire story need not be read. Sensible skimming may be all that is necessary.

Assignment: How Irving ended his story: humorously or seriously. How he might have ended it.

Follow-Up Studies

Additional readings: Irving's "Rip Van Winkle" and "The Specter Bridegroom"; some of his tales from *The Alhambra*; and chapters from his *Knickerbocker's History of New York.* (Selections may be read in part or in whole by pupils and teacher together.)

Separate period study: (1) Words: (a) The story may be considered in six parts. Pupils select, say, a dozen more or less unfamiliar words to look up and to report upon. (b) Proper names may be made into a special glossary for class report and discussion. (c) A "Who's Who" may be prepared of the more important characters. (d) Humor-provoking words and expressions may be listed. (2) Phrases: "inveterate propensity", "torrent of migration", "genius of famine", etc.

Composition period: Several thought-provoking topics may be offered, such as: "Katrina has a mind of her own"; "A close-up of Hans Van Riper when he makes a discovery."

A circle of humor: Each pupil, or a committee of pupils, will make a search for humorous selections to be read during a period especially set aside for "the fun of it." A worth-while preliminary five or ten minutes should be devoted to a consideration of what humor is, in general, and what it is in Irving. "My favorite kind of humor" may be a good topic for later exposition.

Interpretative questions and suggestions.—1. Note the specific aims and the separate points in their fulfilment. 2. What other motivation may there be? 3. What preparation is necessary upon the teacher's part? The pupils'? 4. Note the interrelationship of oral and silent reading. 5. Note the omission of all superfluous details,

such as might distract the teacher from the carrying out of the aims. 6. What use is made of outside reading bearing upon the fulfilment of the central aim? 7. To what extent would illustrative material help? How best procured? By pupils? 8. What opportunities are provided for expressive oral reading? 9. About how many reading periods would this lesson-series require? Why?

Teaching a long prose selection

THE SELECTION: *Treasure Island,* by Robert Louis Stevenson

THE PROCEDURE

General aim: Enjoyment of leisure time

Specific aims: Enabling pupils (1) to enjoy the human interest of the story; (2) to revel in situations of an unusual nature; (3) to make the acquaintance of several fictional characters.

Motivation: Chat about adventure stories previously read: "Here is a story better than any you have ever read"; or, especially with the better-reading type of pupil, through one of the studies listed under "Follow-up," below, which may indeed with such pupils precede the reading of this classic.

Reading: (1) During library periods or at home: "Be prepared to state clearly, with chapter and page reference to support you, precisely why you enjoyed the story and what there was in it to commend to some one else who has never read it." (2) For the purpose of "Follow-up" as indicated below. Or, (3) Simply for the story's sake and to let somebody else know "what it's all about."

FOLLOW-UP STUDIES

A. Informal or standard-form tests. See pages 135–136, 368 ff., and 429 for suggestions.

B. Composition-booklet project. A sufficient number of selected topics may be given out to furnish each pupil with several choices. Every pupil will choose one, and as far as possible all of the selections will be sequential so that in the end

the whole will be a simplified version, as it were, of the entire book.[1]

C. A tourists' travelog: A series of travel talks may be prepared by a committee of pupils.

D. A motion-picture scenario: The more important scenes may be rearranged for "motion picture" purposes. It may also be possible to present some of these as "talking-movies."

E. A dramatic recital: Selected passages may together give a dramatic version of the whole story.

F. A dramatization: "Living movies" may easily be prepared from *Treasure Island.* The more interesting and important scenes should be singled out, possibly rewritten for classroom dramatic presentation, and studied for some period especially set aside. Maude M. Frank's *Short Plays from Famous Authors* (Holt) and Olive M. Price's *Short Plays from American History and Literature for Classroom Use* (French) will be suggestive.

G. A discussion circle: For above-the-average pupils, a beginning may be made in literary criticism, with such topics as: What is the purpose of the apple-barrel scene? Why did Stevenson end the career of each of his characters as he did? Informal conversation should be the dominant note throughout this period.

H. Special word studies: One of nautical terms, for example, will prove of value and interest. The making of a "Who's Who" should be a helpful form of motivation for re-reading and study.

Interpretative questions and suggestions.—1. Review the procedure to note how well it was planned to carry out the aims. 2. What seems to have been the underlying thought in the teacher's preparation? 3. Note how outside reading is arranged for. 4. To what extent is the work socialized? 5. What other motivation is possible? 6. Note opportunities for creative effort. 7. What

[1]See pages 536–537, of the author's *Junior High School Literature Series—Book Three,* for suggested list of topics. Also, see page 538, for list of home and library readings.

training is suggested in the use of books? 8. What opportunities are there for expressive oral reading? 9. About how many reading periods does such a lesson-plan presuppose?

It will probably have been noted that there is little trace in the lesson-sequence as outlined above of the old-fashioned intensive study of a novel. Time was when pupils were held responsible for the meaning of every word, were required to make elaborate outlines of every chapter and to write formal, cut-and-dried compositions upon almost any conceivable feature of the story. Note how different the spirit of this lesson-sequence is from such old-type procedure. Thoroughness as a primary aim has given way to interest. The general purpose is fourfold: to enable children to enjoy a long story, to encourage them to read more as a result of the experience, to refine their tastes, and improve their thought-habits through contact with wholesome reading.

Teaching the drama[1]

I.

In a seventh-grade boys' classroom, a teacher was seated at her desk conducting a reading lesson. Shakespeare's *Midsummer Night's Dream*, Act III, Scene 2, was the subject in hand. It was mid-winter. Pupil after pupil arose to answer such questions as: Will you please explain the meaning of lines 176–188:

> "Dark night, that from the eye his function takes,
> The ear more quick of apprehension makes;
> Wherein it doth impair the seeing sense,
> It pays the hearing double recompense."

A little later in the period, one boy took the part of Lysander, another of Demetrius, a third of Hermia, a fourth of Helena.

[1]For a suggestive treatment, read pages 545–555, "Shakespeare", in CHUBB'S *The Teaching of English.*

Each child rose in his seat to read. After every reading, the teacher strove to elucidate the speeches by questions. Some of the questions called for definitions of words; others, explanations of allusions. "George," asked the teacher at one point, "note in Helena's first line the word *persever.* How would you write it and say it today?" "*P-e-r-s-e-v-e-r-e,* persevere," came the prompt reply. "Yes, that's quite correct. In the days of Elizabeth, boys,—she was Queen of England, you know, from, let me see—from 1558 to 1603.—In her day our *persevere* was both spelled differently and accented differently." Three pupils participated in this part of the lesson.

The visiting supervisor rated the teacher's work unsatisfactory. Was he just and right? Why? Be as specific as you can.

2.

In another classroom a scene from *Julius Caesar* was being enacted by members of an eighth-year class of boys and girls. A pupil stage-manager had evidently been appointed, for a bright lad was "running" the performance. The young actors were in front of the room. Some read their parts from books, others recited their lines from memory. It was the second scene of Act I. Scene 3 followed shortly. Caesar was played by a tall, thin boy; Cassius, by a rough-and-ready stocky youngster; Brutus, by a thoughtful, studious, serious-minded lad. No explanations or allusions were made, but the reading gave evidence of some sort of definite, fruitful preparation upon such matters. No words were mispronounced. The rhythmic flow of the lines with thought-phrasing could hardly have been accidental. Gestures were neither forced nor stilted, but natural and appropriate, interpreting the lines that needed their assistance. The teacher sat in the rear of the room quite inconspicuously, though what his part had been was clear enough.

The non-participating pupils were unusually interested in the general proceedings. They were busy with several matters. A little group here were preparing a newspaper announcement. Another group there were perusing dictionaries and glossaries for explanations of words and allusions. Every child in the room had some meaningful, related job to do.

On a table near the teacher's desk the visitor noticed a cardboard sign with this legend:

THE BOOKS ON THIS TABLE WILL HELP YOU DRAMATIZE JULIUS CAESAR. TAKE ONE HOME WITH YOU BUT LEAVE YOUR CARD IN THE CLASS LIBRARY BOX.

Some of the titles on the table were the following: Louise A. Garnett's *Master Will of Stratford* (Macmillan), William J. Rolfe's *Shakespeare the Boy* (Harper), George M. Martin's *A Warwickshire Lad* (Appleton), Charles and Mary Lamb's *Tales from Shakespeare*, Fred G. Barker's *Forty-Minute Plays from Shakespeare* (Macmillan), Robert E. Rogers's "The Boy Will" (in *Book Two—Bobbs-Merrill Junior High School Literature Series*—Patterson). Some of the titles on the teacher's desk were: Elizabeth B. Grimball and Rhea Wells's *Costuming a Play* (Century), Mary M. Russell's *How to Produce Plays and Pageants* (Doubleday, Doran), *A Book of Costumes* (Dennison Manufacturing Company, Framingham, Mass.), Constance D. Mackay's *How to Produce Children's Plays*, and *Scenery and Costumes for Amateurs* (Holt), Barrett H. Clark's *How to Produce Plays for Amateurs* (Little, Brown).

The supervisor was interested to know more about the work. It developed that the teacher had appointed five pupils to serve as chairmen of the following committees: acting, program, word-study, publicity, spectator-critics. This fifth committee, consisting of all pupils who were to witness the performance, would report upon the play. The best report would be preserved with the program and announcement in "Class Chronicle", a paper of record issued once a month and containing the best written work and "write-ups" of the preceding four weeks. The committee on word study was charged with the responsibility of reporting upon the meanings of difficult words and allusions, which were discussed in the presence of the class during a separate period before the production of the play. The "try-out" for the selection of the actors was really an oral reading period based upon silent reading out of class. The committee chairmen conferred

with the teacher, both as a group and as individuals. At the group conference the committee memberships were thought out. At the other conferences each committee met to plan its special work.

This lesson-sequence for the teaching of drama was marked highly satisfactory. Was this just and right? Why? Be as specific as you can.

Teaching the Technique of Literature

Separate periods for special lessons.—In the junior high school grades, as earlier, it is important to teach the more mechanical aspects of reading in periods separate from the reading periods proper. In these grades, the technique of literature, as well as the mechanics of reading, may be taught to some extent. It is to be emphasized, however, that all technique should be taught as a means to appreciation, not as an end in themselves. In the special lesson periods may be considered (a) vocabulary building; (b) poetic rhythm; (c) figures of speech, and (d) similar matters peculiar to literature. All exercises in these separate periods should be intrinsic[1] in nature; that is, as we remember, not isolated from reading content, but rather rooted therein.

Vocabulary building.—It is still necessary in the junior high school grades to afford practice in (1) word recognition and (2) the extension of vocabulary.

Word recognition.—As in all other grades of the school, poor readers[2] will be found above the sixth year. Much of their trouble may be due to continued inability quickly to recognize words. Among the causes of this inability are probably the following: lack of a reading program of

[1]See page 139.

[2]Re-read Chapters IV and V, *passim*.

graded difficulty, lack of interest in reading, habit of guessing at words, inexpertness in attacking new words, nervous lack of confidence, weak attention or concentration, defective vision, poor auditory memory, word blindness, a narrow recognition-span, faulty eye-movements, mental disorders.

There are three stages which the upper-grade teacher should observe in her procedure for developing better word recognition on the part of pupils: first, testing for remedial cases; second, diagnosis of the individual differences of these cases; third, arrangement of appropriate remedial measures. Both standard and informal tests may be used to determine the seriousness of this difficulty.

Professor Judd has shown[1] that the normal development in the rate of recognition of printed words is gradual but marked through the first seven years of school life. From practically zero in the beginning the number of words may increase to as many as two hundred fifty per minute in the seventh grade.

There is, of course, too little space here for a thorough discussion of word recognition. For further treatment the student is referred to other pages[2] of this book and to titles in the study problems.[3] For the present, suffice it to indicate two or three lines of attack.

1. Through poor teaching in the earlier grades or through physical, mental, or temperamental defects, pupils may not yet know how to recognize words readily through the more obvious likenesses or differences. We should desire that they be aware of certain important features which characterize many of the words that they

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[1]*Reading: Its Nature and Development,* page 145.

[2]Pages 50–51, 60–62, 65 ff., and 368.

[3]Following Chapter V, page 84.

are bound to meet with on the printed page. One simple way to train pupils who show inability to make ready recognition on this score is to present them with lists of words some of which, well distributed over the page, bear varying likeness to one another. The pupils are asked to check all words with similar initials or syllables, and of like length or derivation (prefix, suffix, stem).

2. Another equally simple remedial measure for pupils who are slow to perceive right word associates is the following matching exercise: Arrange, in one column, a number of sentence beginnings, and, in another, a number of words from which to choose the words most appropriate as endings for the sentences.

3. For pupils whose speed of recognition is below normal a simple exercise such as this may prove its worth:

> The following selection contains approximately three hundred words. The silent reading rate of a seventh-term pupil should be about three hundred words a minute. You should, therefore, be able to read this selection through and understand its meaning in one minute.

Questions upon the meaning of thought-wholes and important words may be the follow-up.

For all work of a remedial nature, including this for improvement in word-recognition, pupils should be taught in groups according to their individual difficulties. After-school work with individual children may also be required.

Extension of vocabulary.—In the upper grades, children will best increase their vocabulary generally through wider and wider reading both in literature and in the so-called content subjects. There is need, however, of carefully planned practice lessons of a type similar to those suggested for the intermediate and even the lower

grades.[1] These lessons should be given in separate periods especially designated on the weekly time-schedule. Examples follow:

1. Listing words of similar or related meaning, such as synonyms and antonyms, like derivatives, etc.
2. Studying words rich in content and carefully selected from reading material for extended special study and discussion with the aid of dictionary, thesaurus, or other reference work.
3. Judging comparative values of words through the substitution of one word or expression for another and the testing of sound and meaning values. One useful form of this exercise is the re-writing of technical matter in a non-technical or popular style.
4. Using both standard and informal tests.
5. Studying the author's aim and purpose and checking up the results of his vocabulary choices as these are determined by the subject in hand. For example, a technical work will require technical words; a beautiful word-painting will call for specific substantives and adjectives; a lively narrative, a variety of action words.
6. Keeping lists of new words for later use in oral and written composition.
7. Allowing no unfamiliar word or allusion to escape notice and reference to a dictionary for explanation.

An essential part of the teacher's preparation in all of this work will, of course, be the arrangement of a sufficient number of word-study situations to cover the needs as outlined above. The suggestions offered in Chapter XII should be re-read and extended to reading matter suited to the seventh and higher grades.[2]

Poetic rhythm.—Formal study of the various kinds of poetic rhythm is not at all necessary. Such a study

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[1]See pages 134, 154–155, 212–215, and 357–368.

[2]See STONE's *Silent and Oral Reading*, pages 141–148, for an excellent suggestion for a vocabulary lesson on Poe's poem, "The Bells."

should be left for the senior high school or, better, college grades. Still, it may be well to initiate the junior high school pupil into at least a few of the rhythmic mysteries. Interest in poetic values may thus be freshened, and the ear made more keenly sensitive to the effects of beauty in verse well read. To accomplish these ends a group of selected passages may be taken from the poetry of the grade. These will be read in class under the direct supervision of the teacher. The following group of brief poetic passages will illustrate:

1.

Thou glorious mirror, where the Almighty's form
Glasses itself in tempests; in all time,
Calm or convulsed, in breeze, or gale, or storm;
Icing the pole, or in the torrid clime,
Dark heaving;—boundless, endless, and sublime;
The image of Eternity, the throne
Of the Invisible.

—BYRON

2.

The drawbridge dropped with a surly clang,
And through the dark arch a charger sprang,
Bearing Sir Launfal, the maiden knight,
In his gilded mail, that flamed so bright
It seemed the dark castle had gathered all
Those shafts the fierce sun had shot over its wall
  In his siege of three hundred summers long,
And binding them all in one blazing sheaf,
  Had cast them forth: so young and strong,
And lightsome as a locust-leaf,
Sir Launfal flashed forth in his maiden mail,
To seek in all climes for the Holy Grail.

—JAMES RUSSELL LOWELL

3.

Soldier, rest! thy warfare o'er,
  Sleep the sleep that knows not breaking;
Dream of battled fields no more,
  Days of danger, nights of waking.
In our isle's enchanted hall,
  Hands unseen thy couch are strewing;
Fairy strains of music fall,
  Every sense in slumber dewing.
Soldier, rest! thy warfare o'er,
Dream of fighting fields no more;
Sleep the sleep that knows not breaking,
Morn of toil, nor night of waking.

—Sir Walter Scott

4.

There is a tide in the affairs of men,
Which, taken at the flood, leads on to fortune;
Omitted, all the voyage of their life
Is bound in shallows and in miseries;
And we must take the current when it serves,
Or lose our ventures.

—William Shakespeare

5.

Somewhat alarmed at first, but reassured by the others,
Placing her hand on the cushion, her foot in the hand of her husband,
Gayly, with joyous laugh, Priscilla mounted her palfrey.
Onward the bridal procession now moved to the new habitation,
Happy husband and wife, and friends conversing together.
Down through the golden leaves the sun was pouring his splendors,
Gleaming on purple grapes, that, from branches above them suspended,

Mingled their odorous breath with the balm of the pine and the fir-tree,
Wild and sweet as the clusters that grew in the valley of Eshcol.
Like a picture it seemed of the primitive, pastoral ages,
Fresh with the youth of the world, and recalling Rebecca and Isaac,
Old and yet ever new, and simple and beautiful always,
Love immortal and young in the endless succession of lovers.
So through the Plymouth woods passed onward the bridal procession.

—Henry Wadsworth Longfellow

The student should read and re-read these selections aloud, thoroughly catching the spirit of each before any presentation of the subject is made in class. Such reading and study should reveal the relation of sound to sense and lead to an interesting consideration of the rhythmic art. In 1, Byron's lines, for example, you may feel the very surge of the sea, and glimpse something of the sublimity of space and time. Number 2 reminds one of the tramp of Sir Launfal's horse outside of the castle gate. Scott's verse-form touches one as possibly no other can do in quite the same way. The solemn lines of Shakespeare speak their own message. Note the impulse of the tide itself, seemingly running through and through this matchless verse. Lastly, the movement of a bridal procession is admirably symbolized in the selection from Longfellow's *The Courtship of Miles Standish.* Pupils may be asked to suggest the several emotional appeals made by these five selections.

After a study such as this, the teacher may well take the pupils one step farther. Volunteers, following the teacher, may be called to indicate the proper scansion of portions of the selections. The errors that may be made will have the value of points for discussion. No detailed, technical exposition of the intricate mechanism of verse

should be made, though an individual pupil here and there may be sufficiently interested to carry the study beyond the requirement for the class. If encouragement is now given to creative effort, much value will accrue not only to pupils who try to write original verse but also to their classmates who read what the few compose. Besides, all pupils will gain a much better knowledge of the poetic art while they are increasing their appreciation of literature in verse.

Figures of speech.—Although a formal, intensive study of figurative expressions should not be made below the senior high school or college grades, it would be unwise for the junior high school teacher to omit all consideration of this important element in literature. It is suggested, however, that only the two or three major figures occupy the class's time and thought. These are metaphor and simile, with probably personification and apostrophe. Metonymy, synecdochy, and others may be left for a later day.

Figures of speech should be taught not in isolation, as so many terms, their definitions to be memorized with examples attached. They should rather be construed as integral parts of the literature wherein they appear. Their essential contribution to the meaning and beauty of a passage should be stressed. For instance, in the several selections cited above: In 1, Byron likens the ocean to a glorious mirror. Note the metaphor in such words as *glasses*, *icing*. Make the pupils see the situation or scene as illuminated in the poet's words. Have them note how greatly the figures add to the pictures. Again, in 2, Lowell vivifies his picture with such words, among others, as *dropped*, *gathered*, *as a locust leaf*, *flashed forth*. In 3, Scott adds much to the effectiveness of his song through

the use of apostrophe and personification. Shakespeare, in 4, is at his best in the lines quoted. The whole passage is really one grand melodious metaphor. How much strength it lends to the master-poet's expression! Finally, in the last selection, consider the pictures of the sun "pouring his splendors", and of the grapes "mingling their odorous breath."

Memorization of a poetic selection is not only very often a sure means of improving appreciation but also of quickening the recognition of a beautiful and telling metaphor, phrase, or even longer language unit. A careful reading of the passages just considered will show the possibilities of memorization conceived as an opportunity to acquire enduring literary possessions.

Now and then it happens that some children find it difficult to comprehend figurative language. A good way to approach the subject in such cases is through the medium of sports. A teacher was having trouble teaching so simple a poem as Longfellow's "Ship of State." Several members of the class did not seem to "catch" the significance of the figure the poet employs. In his extremity the teacher fell back upon baseball, telling the boys of a game in which, despite the fact that "so-and-so stole second", a policeman standing near by failed utterly to make an arrest! The boys' look of amazement at such abysmal ignorance of the national game still lingers in memory. The teacher tried to keep a straight face until after he had capped the climax with the question: "By the way, why don't they call the field an emerald or a ruby instead of a diamond?" From the metaphors of baseball to those of poetry it was not a great step for lively, intelligent boys of twelve to take. They were normal, after all.

Review.—Though the junior high school grades are not to be viewed in the light of a separate institution entirely distinct from the lower grades, they nevertheless present their own problems to the teacher of reading. Pupils have now had six years of school work more or less regularly conducted and should be ready to read better and more widely than when in the elementary school. And yet the junior high school pupil may prove a disappointing reader. He must be accorded ample opportunity for extensive reading of literary masterpieces as well as of factual matter in the content subjects. He should also be taught to refine his reading appreciation. His oral reading should grow in expressive power. Literature should mean something more than so many pages to "go over at home," as a task to be accomplished upon which he will recite the following day and be marked for his performance. Rather, his reading of poetry and prose should lead to a deeper, more cultured appreciation of the selection in hand. He should become more and more able to perceive the niceties of expression as these are revealed, for instance, in vocabulary and figures of speech. He should be encouraged to sustain his interest in the same subject matter over several periods. He should be trained to keep to a line of work until it is acceptably completed. Furthermore, he should continue to receive instruction in the fundamentals of reading for, although he has been exposed to the reading process for a number of years, he will still be in need of practice and improvement even while he is advancing far beyond the elementary levels of reading achievement.

STUDY PROBLEMS

A. Discussion Topics

1. "The Effect of Re-reading," Chapter IX, pages 210–228, in Yoakum's *Reading and Study;* and Carter V. Good's "The Effect of a Single Reading Versus Two Readings of a Given Body of Material."

2. *Changing Conceptions Relative to the Planning of Lessons*, by Lois C. Mossman.

3. The English Course of Study of the New Orleans Public Schools states that, "As the work of the lower grades must function through all others, the course maintains a thread of continuity from kindergarten to high school." In what respects does such a statement apply in the reading problem presented in this chapter?

4. What are the merits of the following lesson-plan? What are its defects?

Period: First *Class:* 8A *Time:* 40 minutes
Subject: Oral and Silent Reading of poetry *Room:* 311
Type: Appreciation
Aim: To read "The Bells" appreciatively
Illustrative material: "The Bells" by Edgar Allan Poe
Procedure

A. Preparation:
1. A short introduction asking the children if they ever heard bells; if so, what kind. Brief discussion.
2. Distribute copies of "The Bells."
3. Tell of the author's having written about bells other than those the children spoke of.

B. Presentation :
1. Have the children read the poem silently, with the motive of finding how many bells Poe tells of.
2. Have children name the different kinds.
3. Have individuals prove their point by reading to the class the different stanzas.

C. Conclusion:

Have children read the whole poem silently. Then a child who reads well should be chosen by the class to read the whole poem orally.

Assignment: None.

5. "No study of literature in these years (the junior high) is better than careful reading aloud of good prose and poetry adapted to the capacity of the pupil, and committing to memory and reciting carefully chosen selections."—*State of New Jersey Course of Study in English.*

6. Consult a modern method text and check up the statements made in the paragraph below. Be prepared to discuss the proper method to be pursued in teaching extensive reading. What were the probable difficulties in the case cited?

One authority advocates extensive or supplementary reading. He states that this cursory reading should be different from the basic reading but must not be more difficult. He also says that this supplementary reading ought to serve as a widener of the point of view of the child. It ought also to be interesting. I know that a child must be given a strong motive to attack any supplementary reading. I won't say this is always true, but I know that the idea of just doing extra work doesn't appeal to most children. Therefore, it is the duty of the teacher to motivate this reading and then make proper use of the material. I remember, in one school that I was in, that whenever the teacher announced to the pupils that they would use their supplementary readers a general groan went through the class. I was quite surprised.

7. State your opinion of the following briefly reported lesson:

A 7A class was about to begin the story of "The Man without a Country." The teacher asked the class to find out why Hale wrote the story. This was a specific problem. She told them to use the introduction to the story as a reference. Before the pupils could collect the data they needed for answering the problem they had to assimilate or digest what they had read so that they would be able to pick out only the important facts.

8. Rank the following teaching aims for Longfellow's "The Wreck of the Hesperus" as suggested by ten student-teachers. Be prepared to defend your rank-order, to criticise the aims, and, if you can, to offer a better aim than any given.

a. To have the children realize that there is a "Force from above" that man must consider and against which he cannot work.
b. To bring out the idea that human souls go through temptations during life; some are lost and some are saved.
c. To have children appreciate the fact that one should obey an older, more experienced person, or disaster will follow ofttimes.
d. To have the children appreciate the terrible beauty of the story.
e. 1. To have children appreciate the poem and comprehend the story through its beautiful pictures.
   2. To teach the children the moral, "Never be too sure of yourself—it is sometimes wise to listen to the advice of others."
f. To have children learn about the risks a sailor encountered in past years.
g. To have children realize the terror of a storm on the ocean. To appreciate that one should not be too self-confident but listen to wise advice even from those below us.
h. To help children have hope and faith in God, when in distress.
i. To guide the children in the appreciation of the wonderful description of a storm at sea as described by Longfellow.
j. To teach the children always to believe in preparedness.

9. Briefly discuss the value of training children to do their silent reading rapidly, and state the dangers, if any, in such procedure.

10. A supervisor finds your pupils poor silent readers. What are several possible causes for this condition? What are the remedies?

11. Discuss the value of standard tests in the teaching of literature in the junior high school grades.

B. GROUP RESEARCH TOPICS

1. A study of WALTER S. MONROE's *Directing Learning in the High School,* Chapter VII, "Directing the Acquiring of Knowledge Through Reading", and Chapter XIII, "Directing and Supplementing Learning Activity Outside of the Recitation Period."

2. A summary of HIRAM CORSON's *Voice and Spiritual Education.*

3. A study of W. L. UHL's *The Materials of Reading.*

4. A study of *The Motivation of School Work,* by H. B. and G. M. WILSON.

5. A study of STROH's *Literature for Grades VII, VIII, and IX.*

6. A study of LEONARD's *Essential Principles of Teaching Reading and Literature*: "The Enrichment of Experience through Genuine Literature", Chapter I; "The Teacher's Literary Equipment", Chapter II; "Types of Excellent Literature within Children's Interests," Chapter IV; "Principles of Efficient Method in the Teaching of Reading", Chapter VI; "Class Help in the Understanding of Literature", Chapter VII; "Backgrounds and Approaches", Chapter VIII; "The Use of Composition in Teaching Literature", Chapter IX; "Educational Dramatization and Dramatic Reading", Chapter X.

7. A review of PORTER L. MACCLINTOCK's *Literature in The Elementary School,* especially: "Poetry", Chapter XII; "Drama", Chapter XIII; "The Presentation of Literature", Chapter XIV; "Return from the Children", Chapter XV; "The Correlations of Literature", Chapter XVI; "Literature out of School and Reading other than Literature", Chapter XVII.

8. Training in word recognition and other reading defects. Besides the books mentioned in the text, consult the following: ANDERSON and DAVIDSON's *Reading Objectives,* Chapter XVI, "Diagnosing Reading Defects"; Chapter XVII, "Remedial Work in Reading"; HARRIS, DONOVAN and ALEXANDER's *Supervision and Teaching of Reading,* Chapter XII, "Individual Difficulties"; GATES's *The Improvement of Reading,* Chapter VI,

"Types, Causes, and Further Diagnosis of Difficulties in Word Recognition", and Chapter VII, "Remedial Instruction for Deficiencies in Learning and Perceiving Words".

9. A study of the following paragraphs. Consult, say, five of the authorities mentioned in this book and be prepared to report upon the weight of support you find for the thought expressed:

> In literature, the work of the junior high school should be extensive rather than intensive. Much reading should be encouraged, and in the reading, emphasis should be placed upon the pupil's own response to what he reads without much conscious reflection upon the subject matter either for analysis or criticism. It is largely a matter of exposing the pupil at a time of great absorbing faculty to much that is good in order that his tastes may be guided and set in the right direction. Literary criticism and literary history are of little importance. The character of the literature should be largely narrative and biographical. Much supplementary reading should be done. The classes should resolve themselves into reading clubs, and if libraries are not easily accessible, the teacher should endeavor to get a loan collection of good books to have in the classroom for use of the pupils. Most of the classroom work in literature in junior high school should be oral. Reading aloud, recitation of memorized portions, little dramatizations should constitute the work in literature. Training should also be given in silent reading with test of the thought learned, in order that the pupils may learn to read intelligently and quickly in their outside reading.
>
> The pupil in the junior high school is finding himself in literature. He cannot do so without much experience, and since wide reading is the only method of providing this experience the assignment and direction of supplementary reading matter becomes of paramount importance. Failing to do our duty in this matter, we shall leave the boys and girls to the twenty-volume series of uninspired books that crowd the juvenile shelves.—*Washington, D. C., Provisional Course of Study in English (1923).*

10. A summary of junior high school purposes and aims as gleaned from BRIGG's *The Junior High School*, or COX's *The Junior High School and Its Curriculum*, or McGREGOR's *The Junior High School Teacher*, or VAN DENBURG's *The Junior High School Idea.*

C. INDIVIDUAL RESEARCH TOPICS

1. Preparation of illustrations from "A Measure of the Ability to Judge Poetry", by ALLAN ABBOTT and M. R. TRABUE.

2. Consultation of ALLAN ABBOTT's "Reading Tastes of High School Pupils."

3. A review of Chapter XI, "Motivation", in HARRIS, DONOVAN, and ALEXANDER's *Supervision and Teaching of Reading.*

4. A study of the *Twenty-Fourth Yearbook:* "The Period of Refinement of Specific Reading Attitudes, Habits, and Tastes", pages 64–73; "The Relation between Reading and Literature", Chapter VI.

5. A study of HALL-QUEST's *Supervised Study*, "Supervising the Study of Literature", Chapter XV.

6. A report upon reading suggestions from STEDMAN's *Education of Gifted Children.*

7. A reading of "Literature", Chapter IV, in A. LAURA McGREGOR's *Supervised Study in English for Junior High Schools.*

8. A résumé of Chubb on the teaching of literature. See the revised edition of his *The Teaching of English.*

D. THEME ASSIGNMENTS

1. A brief critique upon the relative merits of the following lesson-plans. Rank them in order of their excellence.

Time: 40 minutes *Class:* 8A *Type:* Appreciation
Subject: Reading
Aim: To appreciate the Power that guides humankind.
Illustrative materials: Bryant's "To a Waterfowl."
Procedure

1. Read poem to the class.
2. What is the poet talking of? (silent reading)

3. How does he talk about the bird? (oral and silent reading)
4. To what is the waterfowl compared? Why?
5. Children read poem again.

Time: 30 minutes
Subject: English—Reading.
Bryant's "To a Waterfowl."
Aim: To have children appreciate that God guides us through our lives.
Appreciation of description of sunset.
Illustrative materials: Bryant's Poetical Works—Introduction, and page 26.
Procedure
1. Short biographical sketch of Bryant's life including incident which led to writing of this poem.
2. Silent reading of poem.
3. Picture shown by first two stanzas. Descriptive words.
4. Who guides the bird in its flight? How?
5. Are the lives of humans guided by a Power?
6. Where are we told that in this poem?
7. Did Bryant have a long way to travel? Where did the steps lead aright? (Tell children if they do not know.)
8. Oral reading of poem.

Assignment: Learn the four lines which you think best bring out the purpose of the poem.

Time: 40 minutes *Class:* 7A *Type:* Appreciation
Subject: Reading Poetry.
Aim: To show that God leads one aright regardless of dejected feelings.
To bring out beauty of bird flying in air at sunset.
Illustrative materials: W. C. Bryant: "To a Waterfowl."
Payne: *American Literature.*
Procedure
1. Tell pupils biographical background.
2. Have pupils read poem silently.

3. Discussion of poem bringing out aims.
Have poem read orally.
Pupils choose four lines they like best and learn them.

Time: 30 minutes *Class:* 7A *Type:* Appreciation
Subject: English—Reading poetry
Aim: To show that all things are guided and cared for by a Supreme Being.
Illustrative materials: "To a Waterfowl", W. C. Bryant. Bryant: *Poetical Works*, page 26.
Procedure: Discuss flight of a bird at sunset.
Is bird guided by some Power as humans are? Why do you think so?
Read poem silently (pupils).
What does the poet try to show?
Does he succeed? In what way?
What do you think of poem?
Explain your own point of view.
Assignment: Memorize four lines you like most and be able to give reasons for your liking them.

2. Suitable methods of counteracting the situation suggested in the following quotation from the *Buffalo* (*N. Y.*) *Course of Study in English*: "Ignorance of words and expressions . . . or the lazy habit of sliding over them without getting their full meaning is a common cause of failure to interpret."

3. An examination of the course of study in English of your city or district to compare its standards with those expressed below. To what extent have you found pupils of any given class measuring up to these standards? If you have had no personal teaching experience in the junior high school grades, consult some teacher who has had, and ask her to give you her views.

The impressions concerning literature that pupils have received prior to admission to Junior High School must of necessity be wide in range and numerous, yet none of them are expected to reach beyond a very elementary stage.

It is assumed that one's likes or dislikes have been based on impulse. This fact must be recognized as the coloring background on which one's tastes and appreciation must be reflected.

It is expected that every pupil has had a good range of contact and at least passing enjoyment in nursery rhymes, and mother-goose stories. A certain literary standard may reasonably be expected to issue from these contacts.

Some biographical sketches will have implanted character impressions of value and fact in addition to the character impressions of the "make-believe world."

The mechanical difficulties of pronouncing familiar words and instant sensing of thought units may be assumed as having been started for further development in the Junior High School literature work.

The Junior High School teacher of literature assumes that the former reading of poetry has been enjoyable. The adventure narratives and description of festal days should give one a stimulus and desire for extended reading and study with sufficient enthusiasm to lead one to analyze and evaluate with ever increasing discrimination in favor of qualities of finer merit.

There need be no set lists for completed readings for grades below Junior High School admission. The important feature is that the reading done shall have accomplished three things: developed an ability to read with passing degree of ease, established a desire to extend and enjoy one's reading, and given a stimulation to one's discrimination in favor of finer literary qualities.

The Junior High School teacher of literature assumes all these qualities shall require continued encouragement and development to prevent their replacement by less worthy literary reactions.

—*Pittsburgh (Pa.) Course of Study in English for Junior High School.*

4. A detailed statement of the merits of the lesson as reported below by a student-teacher observer:

The class was a group of average intelligence. It was a 7B grade class of thirty boys. The time was one o'clock, immediately after lunch.

The reading lesson was a dramatization of parts of the "Legend of Sleepy Hollow." The aim was to give the boys a better understanding of the story and of the characters. A previous assignment had been given in composition, which was to bring in short sketches of the main characters in the story.

There was no planning by the boys beforehand. They selected their own actors and staged the affair according to their own ideas. No aid was given by the teacher. Three scenes were enacted. The first was called "Invitation to the party." Next came "The party." And, finally, a story-telling scene at the party.

After this was done, boys were called upon to read their compositions, and some were found to be written in play form. After hearing the compositions the boys asked for permission to try the acts again for they said they thought they could do much better now. They were permitted, and the repetition was excellent.

The story suited their ability and taste, for they had enjoyed it all along.

The assignment given was to finish the story and write a composition about the "Headless Horseman."

5. A statement of what you regard as the good points and the poor points in the following statement. What better method have you to suggest?

During the time that I was out teaching I had to give many lessons for which I had made little or no preparation. In one such instance, I gave a lesson in reading to a mixed class. I decided upon an extract from Julius Caesar. (Act III, Scene 2)

In introducing this wholesome bit of Shakespeare to the boys and girls, I made the statement that a great general, one who wins decisive victories for his country, is held in high favor by his countrymen and often attains powerful offices. They offered General Grant as proof of my state-

ment. He was raised to the Presidency because of his notable military career.

Then I told them of a very great general, one whose victories were almost incredible, and who was dearly loved by his countrymen. I continued in this strain until one boy, unable to keep quiet any longer, burst out with the information that I was talking about the great Roman, Julius Caesar. After that I told them the story of the play itself to the point where it was taken up in their books. We discussed the fact that we would hardly expect the people in the play, who lived almost a thousand years ago, to speak just as we do today.

Knowing the characters in the play, and the theme, they plunged right into the extract. Since I did not know their ability in reading, I allowed the children themselves to choose the best readers to read the long parts, such as Brutus and Marc Antony. When these children began to read, I reminded them of the situation; for instance, I told the boy who was reading Marc Antony's speech that he was not a boy reading to classmates, but an eminent Roman, defending his dead friend's good name, and trying to reach the very hearts of his countrymen so that they might realize the loss they had sustained when he was assassinated, and rise to avenge him. The result was truly gratifying, for that little fellow spoke with tears in his voice that welled into his eyes when he indicated his dead friend's body alongside of the rostrum.

The lesson I have described above extended over two reading periods. After that I did not have the class any more, so I could not quite finish the extract. They were so very much interested in it, though, that they insisted upon having their regular English teacher finish it with them.

6. A student-teacher reports observing the following practice. Five additional ways in which the end sought may be attained.

Recording and crediting the out-of-class reading of the pupils should be a function of the class exercise. The

teacher should check up on the books read and give extra credit for them. A 7A teacher put aside one period a week for this purpose. Half the period was library period. During the other half she had the children give brief reports on the books they had read during that week. The children brought out good and bad points of the book. Some of these books were in the class library. Others the children obtained from the public library. The teacher suggested a list of books which were posted on the rear board.

7. Specific errors in the procedure of the teacher whose lesson was observed and reported as follows:

> While out teaching, I observed in a 7A class—the selection was being read by the teacher—a story which most of the children knew. The class was well disciplined and dared not interrupt while the teacher was reading. Many of the children were restless, but the teacher kept on reading. When she had finished she called on one boy, one who was not restless, and asked if he liked the story. He said, "I know that story. I'd rather hear another." Many others threw up their hands and agreed with David that they would rather have heard a new story.

8. A discussion of (a) how you would manage in a situation such as described in the following report; and (b) how you would utilize reference readings in the teaching of a literary masterpiece. Be specific. Indicate which reference books might be found most useful.

> One of the aims of upper-grade reading is to teach children how to use reference materials, such as dictionaries, magazines, etc. The children must know how to use these books effectively in order to solve their problem. In teaching a class of eighth-year boys "how to study", I found that very few could use reference books properly and that I therefore had to spend some time on explanations of their use.

9. A discussion of the points treated in the following excerpt on "Aims in the Teaching of Literature", from the *Boston Course of Study in English for Grades VII, VIII, IX, and X:*

To teach the pupil to read—
- To get the information recorded,
- To get the experiences that the writer intended to provide so that the reader lives the literature,
- To read rapidly;

To introduce the pupil to good literature—
- To teach what good literature is, and where to find it, including use of the library,
- To cultivate a taste for good literature that the pupil may form the habit of turning to it for information, inspiration, and entertainment,
- To enable the pupil to discriminate in his reading between the worth while and the worthless, the true and the false;
- To fix in memory a body of poetry and prose which shall be a lasting source of pleasure, a standard of literature, and a stimulus to further acquisition of literature;
- To cultivate high ideals of character and living;
- To broaden, deepen, and enrich the mental and emotional experiences of the pupil;
- To improve the pupil's spoken and written English in vocabulary and style through conscious and unconscious imitation;
- To encourage the pupil to begin to buy books for a personal library.

10. A critical appraisement of Chapter XXX, "Literature in the High School: Placing the Subject and Its Presentation"; Chapter XXXI, "Literature in the High School: Some Clues as to Method"; and Chapter XXXII, "Literature in the High School: Plan of Work", in CHUBB'S *The Teaching of English.*

CHAPTER XVI

TEACHING CHILDREN HOW TO READ FACTUAL SUBJECT MATTER

The main points of this chapter.—Our purpose in reading factual subject matter is, as a rule, somewhat different from our purpose in reading imaginative literature. We are interested in the thought rather than in its emotional effect. Or, we are bent upon problems and their solution—problems set down in cooler, less imaginative fashion than we find in poetry, drama, and prose fiction. It is true, of course, that historical and scientific writing may rise to the dignity of literature. Even so, the method of attack in reading such subject matter is surcharged with study purpose, as distinct from pure enjoyment in the ordinary sense. Chapter XVI consists, therefore, of a discussion of the teaching of factual matter in the junior high school as an extension of earlier reading method; of illustrations of procedures in different subjects; and of a brief statement of the substantial reading attainments of junior high school pupils.

Teaching factual matter in junior high school an extension of earlier reading method.—In preceding chapters study or work-type reading was discussed as an essential part of the reading program. It is even more essential in the junior high school. Knowledge and power are to be looked for in larger measure than in the lower classes. Upper-grade work requires more thoroughly intensive and

much more broadly extensive reading, with greater facility in the use of class textbooks and reference books. Again let it be said, however, that the teacher should not expect too much. Previous training may not have been of the best in some or, indeed, in many cases, and native endowment and capacity to improve may not be of the first order. Varying development in reading abilities will, therefore, be manifest. If possible, the teacher should try very early to discover these several facts, preferably through preliminary standard tests, and should proceed with her reading and remedial practice plans accordingly.

Illustrations of Procedure in Different Subjects

General observations.—A thoughtful reading of the illustrations of the lesson series that follows will show certain recurring elements of method as well as underlying principles. First of all, it will be evident that upper-grade reading is a form of directed activity[1] closely associated with life-interests within the comprehension and age limits of junior high school pupils. Second, it will appear that the aim of the teacher is to teach pupils to read widely as well as intensively, to understand, to remember, to weigh, to consider, and to draw inferences—in a word, to think. Third, oral and silent reading will be clearly seen as not competitive but anticipatory or supplemental, or both; that is, they are really parts of a larger whole. Fourth, outside reading will be shown as not controlled but directed, with no intention, on the one hand, of unduly limiting the pupil's reading during his leisure time, nor,

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[1]Consult R. L. Lyman's *The Mind at Work in Studying, Thinking, and Reading*, pages 149–227.

on the other hand, of encouraging him to read scatteringly and hence, more often than not, to no useful purpose. Fifth, it will be observed that the day of restriction to a single class reader is past, and that that of larger school library opportunities may be assumed to be present. Sixth, it will be noted that nowadays an earnest effort is being made to provide pupils with a practical, ready-to-hand knowledge of the use of books of reference.

Illustrations are offered in the following subjects: (a) history; (b) nature study; (c) geography—industries; (d) commercial life; (e) common experience—for example, with (1) the newspaper, and (2) post office regulations. These illustrations are in no sense final dicta on method. They are intended to be suggestive of the best present-day practice based upon sound theory and should be adapted to specific classroom situations.

History

Aim: Let us say that the Colonial period in American history is to be studied more or less intensively. In some earlier grade a cursory view has been afforded of the general conditions surrounding the settlement of the country. An important aim or objective in the higher grades—without setting too difficult a standard—is a better understanding of cause and effect rather than mere knowledge of the bare facts of our national story.

Review test: Several informal test questions may be prepared to refresh the pupils' memory of the major facts which, it is hoped, have been previously learned. The *Barr Diagnostic Test in American History* will be useful for this review purpose. Rapid re-reading of a lower-grade history text may be necessary if results from this test seem below what they should be. At any rate, consultation of authority will be needed to correct erroneous answers.

Material for study: A large wall map or individual seat maps should be at hand for ready reference during both review test

period and later study periods. Besides the history texts several additional books upon history should be provided. Reference books should also be available in the classroom, in the school library, or in a nearby public library.

Interpretative questions by way of motivation: Some such questions as these may be placed before the class to guide the silent reading that is to follow: 1. What were three of the most important reasons for the great migration from Europe to America during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries? 2. What three principal forms of governmental authority were finally established in the colonies? How did each of these forms originate? 3. What were five of the most outstanding difficulties that the colonists had to face? In what way was each difficulty met? 4. What five important events or movements gradually brought about a general change of sentiment toward the mother land?

Silent reading: The pupils will read to find answers to the foregoing questions and to be able to discuss them in class.

Discussion: Free discussion will be had, with frequent reference to the texts and oral reading of excerpts to confirm or refute answers or other statements made.

Extensive reading: Such reading will be done during the library period or at home. Definite assignments will be made in one or more selected reference books. The aims of this extensive silent reading will be as follows: (a) to meet the individual or group interests of the pupils; (b) to broaden and deepen their acquaintance with the subject matter.

Reports and discussion upon extensive reading.

Testing: One of the standardized tests for history may be used, or, the teacher may make her own test, which may be better for this particular type of lesson. Examples follow:

(a) MULTIPLE-CHOICE

Three complements are given for each of the statements made below. Place a cross (x) on the dotted line before the complement you think is most nearly correct. Read all three complements before you make the cross. Be sure that you check one complement only.

1. The New England Colonists came to America because they were
   desirous of expanding the trade of the mother country.
   anxious to give their children a better opportunity.
   eager for religious freedom.
2. The most important movement gradually to bring about a change of sentiment toward the mother land was the
   expansion of freedom of religious worship.
   growth of colonial trade and commerce.
   natural development from feebleness to strength.

(b) MATCHING

Following are two columns—one of statements, the other of phrases. Indicate the correct relationship in each of the five lines by placing the number 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5 after the correct words in the right column:

1. Georgia was a.	
2. New York was a..	charter colony.
3. Massachusetts was a..	proprietary colony.
4. Pennsylvania was a..	royal colony.
5. Virginia was a.	

(c) COMPLETION

Complete each of the following:

1. The five most serious difficulties that the colonists had to face were, in rank order (the most serious first)

2. These five difficulties were met in the following ways:. . . .

Interpretative questions and suggestions.—1. Check which of the following reading skills were included in the training planned in this lesson: (a) evaluating facts; (b) outlining thought; (c) summarizing; (d) getting central thought; (e) drawing valid inferences; (f) recalling data; (g) thinking logically; (h) thinking reflectively. 2. To what

extent was expressive oral reading provided for? When and how was an audience situation to be maintained? 3. How was independent individual reading planned for? 4. In what degree was this lesson to be recreatory? In what degree, study? 5. What emphasis was placed upon motivation through natural situations? 6. Rank the following factors of reading for comprehension in the order of their stress in this lesson: speed, accuracy, depth. 7. What provision was made for cultivating understanding through wide reading? 8. The *Twenty-Fourth Yearbook* states that "Effective reading habits enable children who study history to live vicariously the lives of historic characters". How may this lesson be judged by such a standard? Be specific.

Nature study

The basic selection: "Wild Animals of the Old World"[1]

The lion is an animal of perpetual interest, but like every other noteworthy wild animal, its haunts are constantly being claimed by civilization, and its members are rapidly decreasing. It is not a difficult matter to exterminate or drive out from a given territory any large and conspicuous quadruped, and at the present rate of settlement and industrial development in Africa, it may easily come to pass that by the end of the present century, the king of beasts will be without a home, outside of zoölogical collections.

Like everything great, the lion has his share of critics and detractors. A few writers have asserted that because he does not stalk through his native forests with head proudly erect, like a drum-major on parade, he is mean-spirited and cowardly. But the beast of noble countenance believes in the survival of the

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[1]From *Popular Official Guide* (pp. 73–76) by WILLIAM T. HORNADAY, Sc. D., reprinted through the courtesy of the author and of The New York Zoölogical Society, New York, N. Y.

fittest, and both by inheritance and observation he knows that a lion who needlessly exposes himself in the field captures the smallest amount of game, and attracts the greatest number of steel-tipped bullets.

Although lions vary greatly in their color, and in the length of the mane, it is conceded by naturalists that only one species exists. In the same district and under precisely similar conditions are found short-maned and long-maned individuals, and all shades of color from tawny yellow to dark brown. The present geographic range of the species is from Southern Rhodesia to Persia and northwestern India, but in northern Egypt there is a large extent of territory which is lionless.

By reason of his heavy mane and massive countenance, supported by the grandest roar that issues from throat of beast, the lion appears to be a larger animal than he really is. It is yet an unsettled question whether he exceeds the tiger in length, height or weight, and it is certainly true that in point of size these two species are very evenly matched.

Strange to say, the tiger ranges far to the northward of his proper home in Hindustan, even to Corea, Manchuria, and Russian Siberia. In those cold regions the tiger grows to his greatest size, and is clothed with a dense coat of long and shaggy hair. In collections, the great northern tigers are the most highly prized.

The tiger will be found upon the earth long after the lion has disappeared. He is a far better hider, a more skillful hunter, less given to taking foolish risks, and he does not advertise his presence and invite his enemies by the bombastic roaring in which the lion delights to indulge. The tiger is an animal of serious mind, and he attends strictly to business. A lion will stalk out into the open in broad day, but the tiger sticks closely to cover until the friendly darkness renders it safe to roam abroad.

Despite the density of the population of India, and the omnipresence of sahibs with rifles of large caliber, the tiger still inhabits all India from Cape Comorin to the Himalayas, the Malay Peninsula, Sumatra, Burma, Siam, and certain portions of China up to the region of snows. Corean and Siberian tigers are much sought after by zoölogical gardens, partly on account

of their size, and also because they are so hardy they are able to live outdoors all winter in the temperate zone. The tiger is not found in Africa, nor in any country westward of India.

The maximum length attained by this animal, head, body, and tail, is 10 feet 2 inches. A very large specimen killed by Dr. Hornaday measured 9 feet $8\frac{1}{2}$ inches in length, stood 3 feet 7 inches high at the shoulders, and weighed, on the scales, 495 pounds. In India, tigers are classed according to their habits, as "game-killers," "cattle-lifters," or "man-eaters." Fortunately, in comparison with the total number of these animals, the latter are few and far between.

Aim and motivation: To prepare for a visit to the zoölogical park. (This lesson outline considers lions and tigers only. The teacher would probably have the pupils read about several other wild animals before a visit to the zoölogical park.)

Study suggestions:

a. Make an outline for this selection.

b. Fill in this outline with answers to the following questions: 1. Why may the lion disappear from his native homeland? In what time? 2. What criticism is made of the lion? What might be the lion's defense? 3. What is the lion's present geographic range? 4. What is the tiger's geographic range? 5. Why will the tiger species outlive the lion? 6. What are some of the characteristics of tigers?

Silent reading: To carry out suggestions under (3), above.

Discussion of answers given under 3 and 4, above.

Brief further study:

a. Look up all unfamiliar words and names. Prepare a list.

b. Consult an atlas and study the geographic distribution of lions and tigers; draw a sketch map indicating the range of each species.

c. Procure pictures of lions and tigers.

Extensive reading for home or library period: Definite assignments for group or individual readings will be made in one or more works on wild life and jungle experience.

Brief report and discussion upon extensive reading: Individual reading records should be kept by pupils.

Visit to zoölogical park.

Composition booklet:

a. Guide: "Wild Animals in Zoölogical Parks—Prepared Especially for Boys and Girls."

b. Booklet: "Impressions of Wild Animals" (as obtained through extensive reading and [or] a visit to a zoölogical park.)

Interpretative questions and suggestions.—1. From the following desirable reading abilities list those conspicuous in this lesson: (a) ready recognition of words; (b) distinguishing essential meanings; (c) forming judgments; (d) following directions; (e) outlining author's thought. 2. To what extent was provision made for the following reading habits and attitudes: (a) leisure reading; (b) wide reading interest; (c) reading simple material at sight; (d) utilizing what has been read; (e) reading for important facts? 3. What other means might have been used to motivate this type of subject matter? 4. Study the interplay of oral and silent reading. What were the reasons for oral reading? 5. To what extent might illustrative material have been necessary? Of what nature should it have been? 6. How was provision made for "broad reading for enriched experience"?

Geography[1]—industries

Teacher's aim: To correlate reading and science with geography as an introduction to economic geography.

Pupils' aim: To study the source of airplane manufacture.

Motivation: Discussion of the parts of an airplane.

Illustrative material: A model airplane or several pictures of airplanes. A clear diagram (on blackboard or large paper) of the parts of an airplane. This may be enlarged from an up-to-date dictionary diagram. (See, e.g., *The Winston Simplified Dictionary—Advanced Edition.*)

[1]Read E. H. Reeder's "A Method of Directing Children's Study of Geography."

Procedure

Discussion: The parts of an airplane, each part being listed on the blackboard, with accompanying note upon the material of which it is made.

Research silent reading: To find in the class geography how much airplane material is supplied by, say, the United States. Pupils should make notes of their findings for later discussion in class.

Class or volunteer committee research: Preparation of a glossary of airplane terms with, as far as practicable, non-technical equivalents as part of the definition.

Discussion: The findings from research followed, in class or through home study-period assignment, by (1) a sketch-map indicating the locality of each source of material; (2) a diagram of an airplane indicating source of materials; (3) a consideration of the effect of this matter upon the United States in peace and in war.

Extensive reading:

1. Suggested readings: A list of current books and articles upon airplanes and aviators, including, for instance, *We* by Colonel Lindbergh, and *Skyward* by Admiral Byrd.
2. Individual initiative readings: Articles may be found, read, and reported upon by pupils quite independently of definite suggestion from the teacher. Such matters may be located in periodicals like *The Scientific American*, *National Geographic Magazine*, *Popular Radio*, *Popular Science*.

Brief reports in class upon extensive reading: Individual reading records should be kept by pupils.

Interpretative questions and suggestions.—1. What specific reading abilities were probably in the teacher's mind in this lesson? 2. To what extent were the following considered: (a) word study; (b) free discussion; (c) correlation; (d) manual activity? 3. Indicate wherein this lesson assumed individual differences among the pupils?

4. The *Twenty-Fourth Yearbook* says that "An important skill in reading is evaluating the material read and forming judgments about it—in other words, reacting actively, not merely remembering." To what extent has this lesson met this need? 5. The National Council of Geography Teachers' Committee on High School Geography asserts of "The Claims of Geography as a Junior High School Subject": "Geography has long been recognized as a synthetic subject because of its intimate relation to the social, biological, and physical sciences. It is rooted in so wide a variety of interests that its facts and principles may be used as the 'core' in the solution of many of the vicarious problems and in the organization of studies that deal with industries, trade and transportation, and international affairs. It offers a logical, usable, well established, easily comprehended scheme of organization of the material dealing with human activities in the fields listed above and in many others. Lack of balanced organization is one of the shortcomings of much of the teaching in the composite courses in social studies." In the light of this recent (1927) statement of aims, reconsider the lesson just studied. Suggest plans for other lessons further to fulfill these aims.

Commercial life[1]

Aim: To teach intelligent reading about commercial situations as they occur in banking operations.

Motivation: Silent reading and discussion of the following selection,[2] entitled: "How People Make Use of the Bank":

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[1]Read in this connection Chapter VII, "Characteristics of Arithmetic Reading," in O'Brien's *Reading: Its Psychology and Pedagogy.*

[2]Reprinted by courtesy of American Bankers Association, Public Education Commission, 110 East 42 Street, New York, N. Y.

Selection: "How People Make Use of the Bank"

Few homes, nowadays, stand entirely alone and disconnected from the rest of the world. Far out in the country the rural mail delivery brings the daily paper and letters from the most distant places. The road in front of the house leads to the school, the church, and the town or city where you trade.

When you reach the more thickly settled communities, dependence upon others is even more emphasized. The faucet that you turn brings water from a pipe that connects with a larger pipe buried in the ground in front of the house. The gas or electricity which cooks your meals or lights your home, your telephone on the table, all reach you through connections, which eventually lead back to gas or electric light plant or telephone central in your village or city. The water, gas, electricity, and telephone are all tied into the service stations which send out these comforts of life through pipes and wires to the houses in the community. Even many country homes enjoy these conveniences. This is why we said that there are few homes which stand alone and disconnected from the rest of the world.

The bank, likewise, is a service station for the entire community; money flows into the strong vault and out again to serve the needs of business. The school and the church are also great service stations built for the good of all the people. As we think of the bank, therefore, let us regard it as a great central place where not only business people but boys and girls as well are assisted in caring for their money. The bank will serve each of you just as it serves others. Our purpose in this talk is to show how successful people make use of the bank and how the banks help them to gain a higher position in life.

As you have observed, farmers, working men, merchants, teachers, lawyers, and many others bring money to the bank. Some want to put their money in what is called a "savings account" in order that it may draw interest. Others want to put their money in the bank in such a way as will let them use part or all of it from day to day.

When an account is opened at the bank, a card has to be filled out showing occupation, address, and the carefully written signature of the depositor. Many questions may be asked and

even references required as to the character of the depositor for it must be remembered that trust and confidence are the very cornerstones of the bank's business.

One more step is necessary before the depositor leaves his money with the bank, and that is the filling out of a deposit slip. On the deposit slip the depositor writes his name and lists the currency (gold, silver, and small change), checks, and paper money which are to be deposited in the bank. The new customer is then introduced to the teller who receives the money and gives the customer a pass book, which contains a record of the amount deposited, and also a book of blank forms which are called checks. Such in brief are the necessary steps in opening a checking account. I shall now take time to tell you more about this book of blank checks which is one of the most interesting developments in present-day banking.

We know that many people pay for their purchases by means of a bank check which, when properly filled out by a customer known to the merchant, is just as quickly accepted as the money itself. The housewife may pay for coal with a check, and the coal dealer in turn may pay for repairs on his coal truck with his own check. All over the United States people have checking accounts for the purpose of paying bills by this method. It saves carrying money around in one's pockets or purse; it also makes it possible to keep a record of money paid out, for the stub in the check book is arranged for just this purpose.

If you look once more at the deposit slip you will see that there is a place for listing checks which business men and others have received in the course of the day. These are looked over carefully by the teller who enters the total amount of the checks and the money in the customer's pass book. When the checks deposited by the customer have been drawn by other customers of the same bank, it is an easy matter for the bookkeeper to make the proper additions and deductions in the books of the bank. The total amount of the checks is added to the account of the depositor and the amount of each check subtracted from the account of the person who made it out. When the checks received from the depositors are checks on other banks of the same city, or even on banks in distant places, they are at once sent to these other banks for collection.

The business of receiving deposists and paying checks continues day after day in all banks where business accounts are carried. When you are told that millions of transactions are handled each day by banks of the United States, you begin to see what a wonderful system has been built up by the use of the bank check, and how the bank becomes a great service station for exchanging money, between all persons engaged in business.

Up to this time you have been told how the bank acts as a service station for its customers. Many of you have probably wondered how all these services could be given depositors and how, at the same time, the bank could pay salaries and other costs of doing business, together with interest on savings deposits and dividends to those who have invested in the stock of the bank. This brings us to another very important way in which people make use of the bank and that is by borrowing money from it.

As the merchant's business grows larger, he must carry a larger stock of goods. Some of his customers do not pay cash for the goods they buy and must be carried on the books until pay day. This means that the merchant must have more money in his business. Accordingly he goes to the bank and talks frankly with one of the officers about his affairs. If the banker finds the merchant a man of good character whose business is handled properly, the banker takes a plain note from the merchant for the amount of money required. His business goes ahead as usual and in due time the note is paid off with the money he has received from the customers he has trusted.

Should the merchant find that his stock of goods is growing too large for his storeroom, he will very likely build an addition to his store. Of course, he cannot take the money out of his business to pay at once for this addition, so again he must call on the bank for a loan. When he borrows for this purpose he sometimes gives a note and mortgage with his store property as security. This means that if the merchant fails to pay the loan, the bank will have the right to sell the property in order to get back its money.

In the same way that a merchant makes use of the bank by borrowing money in order to build up his business, all other people who have good reasons for borrowing may have the

bank's assistance. In case we wish to buy a home, the bank will help us to raise part of the price, if we have some money of our own, the property itself standing as security. Whenever there is need for us to borrow money for any right purpose, the bank, if the loan is properly secured, is always ready to help us. The banker must, of course, feel certain that the loan will be repaid when due. Money should not be hired if the borrower is spending it for living expenses. No one should spend more than he can earn. If the banker finds that the money asked for is not to be used for a wise purpose or that the person asking for it is not of good character and will probably not be able to repay, the loan will not be made. In all cases the banker wants to know all the facts and is very glad to lend money to those who have fine business ability, or on proper security.

Every person should learn to think in the right way about using the bank for the purpose of borrowing money. Just as the farmer hires help to do his farm work better and more quickly, you may hire money to assist you to do bigger things. The interest you pay for the use of the money represents the wages you would pay if you were hiring another person or some useful animal to help you. Money borrowed at the bank must be repaid when the note falls due. Bank loans are usually made for from thirty days to six months and the interest, called discount, is deducted in advance.

Another use of the bank is in the providing of cash for payrolls. Each week when those who work in the mills and factories are paid, a list of the various denominations of money needed to pay the workers is given to the bank. The payroll is then made up and handed by the bank teller to the manager of the mill or factory so that he may distribute it in pay envelopes. The manager pays for this money by a check against his firm's account. It is very dangerous to carry large sums of money along the street and for this reason the person who is entrusted with the payroll is usually heavily guarded. Often armored cars are used to take the payroll to the mill or factory.

In the same way all merchants and other business people call on the bank for change required in their business. Whenever sales are heavy on a given day, extra amounts of change

are required. People who buy always want to receive their change without any delay. Thus the bank helps business by supplying half dollars, quarters, dimes, and other small coins in exchange for paper money or gold coin.

One of the most important uses that people make of the bank is that of placing their own valuable papers, stocks and bonds, jewelry, or silverware in the bank vault. Most banks rent safe deposit boxes to persons who have valuables and who want to keep them where there is least danger of loss by fire or theft. Each renter is given two keys to a numbered steel lock-box. This is fitted out with a tin box in which the valuables are kept. No one but the renter can open his safe deposit box. Whenever he wishes to put something in the box or take something out of it, he can go into the bank vault, unlock the door of the steel box, and use it just as if it were his own property. The rental cost for a good sized safe deposit box is but a few dollars a year, and the renter is repaid many times over because his valuables are safe.

More and more the bank is thought of as a place where sound advice may be had on all financial matters. The banker keeps himself informed regarding the business life of the community. He is always thinking about the prosperity of those who use his bank, because his own prosperity depends on theirs. His place as a banker brings him in touch with people in all walks of life, and he often sees their success or failure before they see it themselves. He is willing to give to all who come to him the benefit of his best knowledge on the subject of their investments or the use of their money. Many banks are given the power to take charge of the property of men and women, sometimes during their lifetime, but more often after death, settling up and administering their affairs. Questions in matters of this kind are not easy to solve and the advice of the banker is valuable because his daily experience teaches him the best course to follow.

Silent reading: The pupils will observe the following instructions:

a. Read the selection silently with care and attention.
b. Make a topical outline of this selection.

c. Frame brief, simple statements—preferably in single sentences—explanatory of these topics:
   1. Depositing money in a bank
   2. Paying bills by check
   3. Borrowing the bank's money
   4. Cashing payrolls
   5. Making change
   6. Placing valuables in the bank vault
   7. Getting the banker's advice

d. Make a list of all banking terms which you do not understand. Look up their definitions in a large dictionary, or other good reference book, and make record of them.

e. Suggest a question upon each of the seven topics under (c), above. Exchange questions. Re-exchange and check for accuracy. Score results for individuals and for class.

Discussion: (a) Of the results of the assignments outlined above, with oral reading, now and then, to stress or prove a point. (b) Of the benefits and advantages of banking to individuals and to the community.

Visit to a business bank: Made by a small committee of pupils for an interview with one of the officers or clerks upon definite, well-formulated questions suggested under the teacher's guidance and arising from the discussion suggested above. Report to class should follow, when further questions may be asked to clear up a doubtful point.

Problems: a. Pupils may suggest a possible arithmetical problem or two for one or more of the topics mentioned briefly above, or for a combination of two or more. They should also write out on separate papers the most important points to be considered in the solutions of these problems. The problem-papers will then be exchanged, each pupil writing down in a blank space below each problem how he would attempt to solve it. Re-exchange and check-up upon agreement. Discussion may follow upon any points in disagreement, with attempts at separate solutions by pupils still disagreed.

b. Teacher may get from a bank, or from business friends, factual problems, simple enough or easily adaptable for pupils to solve.

Extensive reading:

a. In a children's encyclopedia or other simple reference book.

b. In some series, such as McMurry and Benson's *Arithmetics* (Macmillan).

Interpretative questions and suggestions.—1. What is the purpose of each part of this lesson-outline? 2. What reading skills are objectives? 3. What advantage may be gained by having the pupils suggest their own problems? What point is there in having the teacher get her problems "from a bank or from business friends"? 4. Make out a set of problems (a) suitable to the upper grades, (b) in keeping with this selection, and (c) useful in developing reading skills helpful to arithmetical ability. 5. Construct acceptable informal or standard-form tests for this lesson.

Common experience

The Newspaper

Aim: To interest pupils in the intelligent reading[1] of a newspaper through a knowledge of its making and the meaning of its several important parts.

Motivation: Silent reading of an article such as those published by some metropolitan newspaper[2] may be used as excellent preliminary silent reading material. Interesting explanations will thus be had of the numerous processes through which various correspondents, reporters, editors, typesetters, type-casters, printers, and distributors take the raw material from the life of the locality and of the world at large to the breakfast table every day. An informational table of contents, a list of questions, or a

[1]Read F. O. Smith's "Pupils' Voluntary Reading." Smith and others have found that a surprisingly large number of pupils read the daily newspaper.

[2]*The New York Times*, for example, issues a very interesting pamphlet entitled, "The Making of a Modern Newspaper." A copy may be had upon request.

tabulation of persons and functions will serve to guide this reading.

Discussion: Following the silent reading of informational matter upon the "make-up" of a newspaper will come a direct discussion on the basis of the article studied. It will be well to have pupils bring in a newspaper cut up to illustrate the points in discussion.

Vocabulary list: A glossary of newspaper terms should be prepared.

Study of newspaper: Enough copies of the same edition of a given newspaper should be provided by the teacher or brought to class by the pupils themselves A previously prepared outline of the various features of the paper should be at hand to keep the study within bounds. The board should be freely used to record titles for the three major parts (news, editorial, advertisement), with a brief statement of their respective purposes and with examples of each as noted by the pupils.

Extensive reading: Interesting matter may be found in children's encyclopedias and, frequently, in current periodicals.

Brief reports in class upon extensive reading: Individual reading records should be kept by pupils.

Writing a newspaper: Perhaps concurrently with extensive reading, a newspaper may be written (a) by the class as a whole, the pupils being organized in three committees—news, editorial, advertisement—affording ample opportunity for everyone to contribute by writing or by making "heads" or "leads", or (b) by each of two or three groups of pupils, similarly organized into smaller committees.

Reading: The class newspaper or group newspapers should be read, in part silently, in part orally, by all the pupils in the classroom. Excellent practice in reading, especially for slower pupils, is thus afforded.

A visit to a newspaper office: A visit to a newspaper establishment should by all means be made wherever possible. Report and discussion in class may follow.

Interpretative questions and suggestions.—1. Indicate at what points search for facts is required. 2. To what degree is reflective thinking necessary on the part of

pupils? 3. How is association of ideas encouraged? 4. To what extent is reproduction of ideas a part of this lesson? 5. Prepare a good test for such a reading lesson as this. 6. Which, in your judgment, are the most important factors in this lesson?

Post Office Regulations

Aim: To teach pupils to read and use facts accurately.

Motivation: Practical oral discussion of the usefulness of the post office in modern life. Such discussion should be centered in the lives of the pupils themselves.

Reading material: United States Post Office Department circular entitled, "Domestic Postage Rates, etc." This circular indicates the postage rates for the four classes of mail matter, for special handling, special delivery, registry, insurance, C.O.D. service, and money-orders. It also explains the proper manner of addressing mail. Sufficient copies should be procured at the local post office so that each pupil may have one. It would be better to let every child get one for himself and bring it to class.

Study problems based upon reading material: There are several ways of treating such factual material as this. Those indicated below are simply suggestive.

Practical problems: The following problems will serve to rivet attention upon the reading material:

These questions, among many others, are very probably asked almost every day in some post offices. How would you answer them if you were a postal clerk?

a. A lady wishes to send a package of books as a birthday present to a friend in a distant city. What should she know about how to send this package?
b. A business man sends an errand boy to the post office with 1000 circulars in envelopes. What will the boy learn about mailing them?
c. A clerk wraps up a parcel for a customer who wishes to send it by mail. Before the goods are wrapped the lady asks the clerk to inclose a brief note to her friend. How may this parcel be mailed?

d. A person takes a package to the post office. "Special handling?" asks the postal clerk. What does he mean?
e. A young man wants to mail a valuable gift to a young lady. What precaution should he exercise?
f. You are in the country. At a novelty shop you notice some beautiful mountain views. How much will it cost to mail 20 of these to your friends?
g. A father wishes to mail $75 to his daughter at college. How may he do so with safety? How much will it cost?
h. A postal clerk informs a man about the proper way of tying and addressing a package. What information is given?
i. At a post office window you see a woman insuring a package. Why should this be necessary or advisable? The clerk asks her if she wishes a return receipt. She inquires what a return receipt is. If you were the clerk, what would you tell her?

Study questions: A set of interpretative questions based upon the same material might include the following:

a. In how many ways may a letter be mailed? Explain. A package? Explain. A newspaper? Explain.
b. What do you understand by "registry service"?
c. What is the meaning of "C.O.D. Services"?
d. What is the difference between First Class and Second Class Mail? Between Second Class and Third Class? Between Third Class and Fourth Class?
e. What is meant by "Special handling"?
f. When should a parcel be insured?
g. What does the word *indemnifiable* mean?
h. When may a "return receipt" be requested? At what cost?
i. How should an envelope be addressed?
j. What is "dead mail matter"?

Pupils' own problems and questions: For a high normal class it is often a first-rate method to permit the pupils to make up their own problems or to raise their own questions, based upon the matter read. These problems and questions should then be exchanged among the pupils, and solutions and answers worked out. Excellent motivation for intensive silent reading will thus

be provided. Teachers sometimes divide their classes into groups, the problems or questions of one group to be solved or answered by another.

Discussion: The solutions or answers to the problems and questions suggested above, should form the basis of fruitful classroom discussion of a very practical kind, with frequent verifying reference to the matter read. All post office terms, such as, domestic rates, zone, registry, C. O. D. service, etc., should receive attention.

A visit to the post office: A visit to the post office should have a definite aim. This may be threefold: (a) to study the process of handling mail; (b) to copy all regulations posted on bulletin boards; (c) to become familiar with the physical arrangements, such as the several "windows" for stamps, special delivery, registry, etc. Report in class should be made.

Extensive reading: Such matter as the following: Official Postal Guide, (Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.; price $1, delivered to any address); "Zone keys are furnished free to purchasers of the Guide"; various official circulars procurable at any post office; *The United States Post Office,* Daniel C. Roper (Funk & Wagnalls)—a story of post office development.

Brief reports in class upon extensive reading: Individual reading records should be kept by pupils.

Debate for volunteers: Resolved, That the Post Office will be replaced by radio and other swift means of communication.

Interpretative questions and suggestions.—1. What part does oral reading play in this lesson? 2. How is problem-solving made a distinct aim? 3. Explain to what degree this lesson is a project?[1] 4. To what extent is memory a factor? 5. What part does imagination play?

The substantial reading attainments of junior high school pupils.—Briefly, the child at the close of his ninth school year should have acquired, other things being

[1]See pages 208 ff

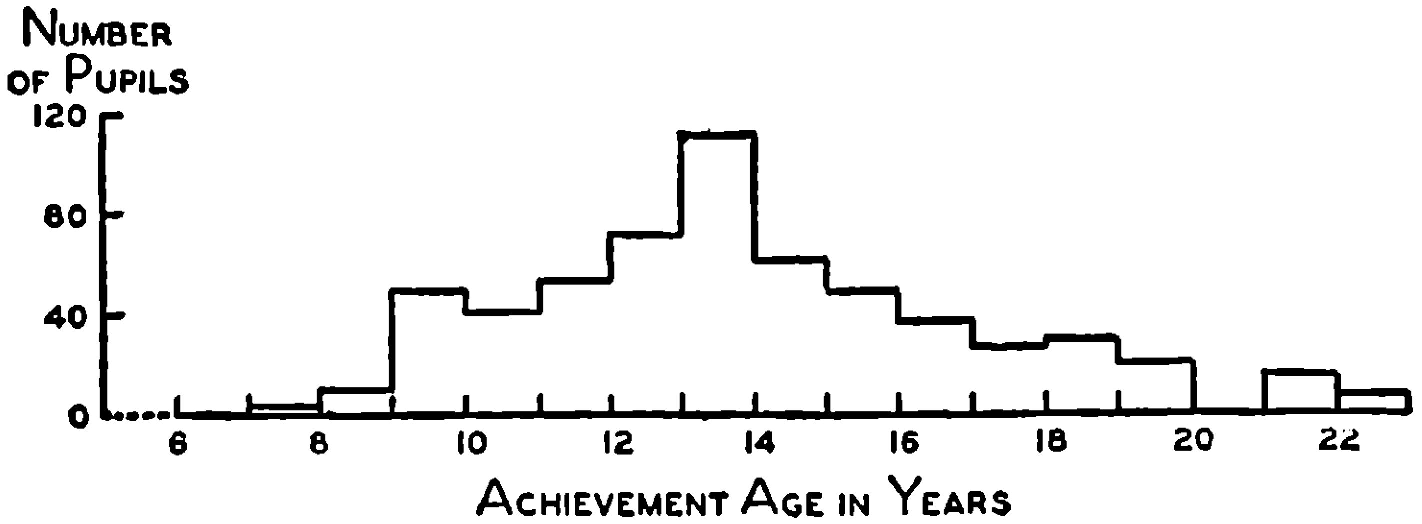

FIGURE 13. DISTRIBUTION OF EIGHTH-GRADE PUPILS ACCORDING TO ACHIEVEMENT AGE IN COMPREHENSION OF SILENT READING[1]

(After Monroe, De Voss, and Reagan)

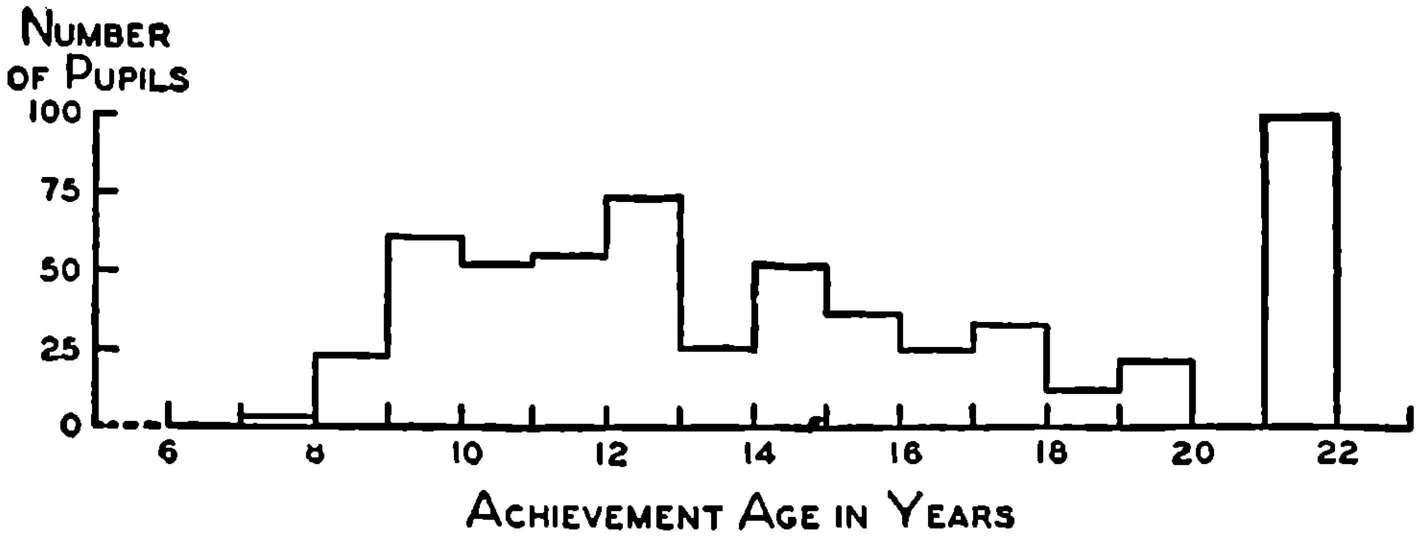

FIGURE 14. DISTRIBUTION OF EIGHTH-GRADE PUPILS ACCORDING TO ACHIEVEMENT AGE IN RATE OF SILENT READING[1]

(After Monroe, DeVoss, and Reagan)

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[1]From *Educational Psychology.*

equal, a normal, wholesome taste for good reading matter in poetry and prose, with fairly well-developed discrimination in the selection of material. He should have become capable of independent reading with ease, efficiency, pleasure, and profit—*orally*, when an audience situation affords the opportunity, and *silently*, when extensive reading for sheer enjoyment or intensive reading for study requires it.

The opportunity to play a part in the education of a child to these ends is one of the greatest that a teacher's life offers.

Review.—Reading factual matter in the junior high school is essentially a study process wherein both intensive and extensive reading are necessary. The pupils' reading is really thinking—a directed, purposeful activity of first importance, and exercised variously with content-subjects and subjects of common experience. Discriminating, efficient, refined, independent reading should be more and more apparent as pupils advance to the end of their ninth school year.

STUDY PROBLEMS

A. Discussion Topics

1. The following is a report of an observed demonstration lesson in testing reading at the close of a seventh-year term. The class was composed, approximately, 40 per cent of boys and 60 per cent of girls. Read this report carefully and be prepared to discuss each step taken and the reasons for the results. Be prepared also to suggest possible remedial measures.

Principle or method to be demonstrated: Individual differences among children.

Type: Diagnostic test to discover children's differences in reading at end of term.

Aim: (a) *Teacher's:* To discover individual differences in children's reading abilities.
(b) *Pupils':* To read as speedily and comprehendingly as they could.

Materials: Readers; chart stating points upon which ratings were to be made for oral reading.

Motivation: "At the large department stores they are taking inventories of their goods. Today we are going to take an inventory of our reading to see what points we are good in and what points we need help in."

Selection and organization of subject matter:
The selection read was unfamiliar to the children.

[NOTE.—The silent reading test included rate and comprehension. The oral reading test included posture, use of voice, phrasing, clear enunciation stressing final and initial consonants, vowel sounds, and correct pronunciation.]

Presentation:

(1) TEACHER'S ACTIVITY

Miss —— introduced the lesson by reading the introductory fine print to save the pupils' time. Paper was distributed. The children were told that they were to be marked for rate and comprehension in the silent reading test. Miss —— then asked the following questions, which the children were to answer in brief form:

1. By what means did Ann descend to the back door?
2. Whom was Ann warning?
3. What time of day was it?
4. Where did the hero work?
5. Into what service was the hero being forced?
6. What was the hero's first move in planning the escape?
7. What did he use for the exit?
8. How did he get from floor to floor in the mill?
9. Where did they think he was hidden?
10. What did they find belonging to the hero?
11. Who put it there?

"Open to the place where you drew a pencil line through the last word.

"How many did not finish the first page? The second? Count the lines, multiply by 10, and add in the extra words. Add the words together and divide by two.

"Which story do you want to read for the oral test?" (The general favorite was then read).

"These are some of the things I heard: Injun, hoid, dat.— The following pupils should do better. . . Change papers with your neighbor." (Miss —— supplied the last answer as none of the children had read that far.)

(2) PUPILS' ACTIVITY

a. Distributed the paper.

b. Read the story silently for two minutes and drew a pencil line through the last word read when they were told to stop.

c. Answered the questions. (Correct answers were: 1. a ladder; 2. Bob; 3. night; 4. mill; 5. marine service or navy; 6. threw a shoe at the lamp; 7. window; 8. hoist; 9. in the corn; 10. hat. No child answered the eleventh.)

d. The children added their words. One little girl read 600 per minute; a boy, 710 words per minute. The children exchanged papers and corrected them.

The oral reading then proceeded.

Assignment: None

Results: The aim was realized. Miss —— discovered the children's differences in reading ability as shown by the preliminary results. One child read 86 words with a comprehension of 2 questions. This was the lowest. Another, the highest, read 713 words with a comprehension of 8. This great variation shows the probability of differences in even a normal class.

2. A seventh-year teacher of reading finds her pupils about evenly divided between good and poor silent readers, but 60 per cent of them very good oral readers. What may be some reasons for this condition? What remedial measures should the

teacher use?—Before doing this exercise, re-read all relevant matter in the text.

3. A supervisor pays an official visit to an eighth-year teacher and finds that the children read fast enough but with inaccurate understanding of the main thought of a paragraph. How might a teacher explain the reason or reasons for the general lack of this specific reading ability? What would you as the supervisor suggest to improve the work?

4. "The reading process with junior high school pupils is merely an extension of the reading process with children of the intermediate grades."

5. "Silent reading is the basis of effective oral reading."

6. Refined oral reading ability is a social asset.

B. Group Research Topics

1. A report upon *How to Study and Teaching How to Study*, Frank M. McMurry.

2. A chart of practical suggestions gleaned from *Supervised Study in English*, A. Laura McGregor; and *Supervised Study*, Alfred L. Hall-Quest.

3. A résumé of *One Hundred Ways of Teaching Silent Reading—For All Grades*, Nila Banton Smith.

4. "Types of diagnosis and corrective procedure vary widely."—Laura Zirbes in "Attacking the Causes of Reading Deficiency." A group of students may consult several other authorities upon this point.

5. The fundamental factors in junior high school oral reading ability. Consult recent authorities such as several that have been cited in this book.

6. Suggestions for the teacher of reading from a study of Henry H. Goddard's *School Training of Gifted Children*, and Leta S. Hollingworth's *Gifted Children*.

C. Individual Research Topics

1. A tabulation of additional points from "Training Lessons in Silent Reading", Chapter VIII, pages 164–223, Stone's *Silent and Oral Reading*.

2. A study of "The Relation of Reading to Content Subjects and Other School Activities", Chapter V, pages 122–140, *Twenty-Fourth Yearbook*.

3. A report upon "Training Pupils in the Use of Books", Chapter XIV, pages 280–292, in ANDERSON and DAVIDSON'S *Reading Objectives.*

4. A report upon "The Thoughtful Reading Processes", Chapter XII and XIII, pages 238–279, *ibid.*

5. A review of pertinent passages from *The Mind at Work in Studying, Thinking, and Reading,* R. L. LYMAN, pages 149–227.

6. A brief summary of "Using the Public Library in the Teaching of Reading", ELIZABETH GUILFOILE.

7. The main points in "The Teaching of Assimilative Reading in the Junior High School", R. L. LYMAN.

8. A summary paragraph based upon "The Relation between Study and Reading", W. S. GRAY.

9. A review of "Improving the Ability to Read Arithmetic Problems", ESTALINE WILSON.

10. A review of "General and Specific Effects of Training in Reading", ARTHUR I. GATES and D. VAN ALSTYNE.

11. A résumé of "A Study of Supervised Study", W. A. BROWNELL.

D. THEME ASSIGNMENTS

1. "In the teaching of reading the varied interests of children should be kept in mind."—*Rural School Leaflet,* No. 35, Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

2. "The reading done by adults is so frequently concerned with industry that the school should not neglect to provide reading material which describes something of the processes necessary in the supplying of food, clothing, tools, machinery, utensils, and shelter." *Ibid.* Prepare a complete lesson-series upon any one of the suggested subjects.

3. Silent reading in the upper grades is for both recreatory and study purposes.

4. Expressive oral reading is a genuine asset in life.

5. The best junior high school teacher of arithmetic (geography, history, or science) may be another way of saying the best teacher of reading.

CHAPTER XVII

A GENERAL REVIEW

I. The Importance and the Nature of Reading

1. **The reading teacher's problem.**—The importance of reading creates a teaching problem of primary consequence in the school life of every child. Reading as the interpretation of expression is one of the major parts of language instruction. It is more or less dependent upon prior learning and is the most important avenue, among several, to the understanding of the printed page. The objectives of reading are civic, vocational, cultural, and recreational. Its aims are the broadening of experience, the instilling of worthy motives and the establishment of correct attitudes—all for the enrichment of life and the improvement of living.

2. **From picture-writing to printed book.**—The history of reading is closely parallel to the story of mankind's advancement from inarticulate calls and cries and gestures, within a narrow physical, social, and intellectual environment, to a civilization marked by universality of opportunity to interpret the written expression of others. Beginning with pictographs, the crude drawings of objects of sense, and ideographs, the drawings of ideas and feelings, man learned slowly to generalize and conventionalize his primitive efforts at written expression. The evolution of the code of letters known as the alphabet came in the

natural course of development. With this cultural tool, vastly increased in usefulness through the invention of printing in the fifteenth century, mankind's horizons have been broadened beyond measure or conjecture. To all people, in time, literary and cultural contacts will be possible through their ability to read.

3. **The evolution of reading methods.**—In order that all might be able to learn to read, mass education through the establishment of schools for the common people was inevitable. The change from individual or small-group instruction to class instruction meant the reorganization of educational methods. In the United States, though leadership has struggled with the new problem for well over a century, it is still with us. Uppermost in the development of methodology in our schools has been the special problem of how to teach all children to read with speed and understanding, efficiency and zeal, for literacy is the cornerstone of public opinion.

Generally speaking, the attempts at solving this problem of teaching reading have been the *synthetic*—or the building up of words from letters or sounds—and the *analytic*—or the breaking up of sentences into phrases and words, and the words into phonograms, that is to say, into vowel-consonant (or consonant-vowel) combinations. Since these phonograms are useful in forming other words it has become a characteristic of present-day methodology to combine the earlier synthetic with the later analytic method. To supplement this basic analytic-synthetic technique teachers today employ phonics and phonetics, dramatization, illustrative material, and many other special means to assist the learner in his efforts to read.

There are many reading systems in current use. More

and more they are not only composite or eclectic in their organization but also psychologically better founded. The books we give children to read in our day are far more worthy examples of the printer's art than any in times past. These books are graded to meet the requirements of the three important pedagogic periods according to which the reading process program may be arranged, namely, the beginning grades, when the child first learns to use printed symbols to interpret thought, the middle or intermediate grades, when the child widens his reading experience, and the upper or junior high school grades, when the child refines his reading habits.

4. **The physiological aspect of the reading process.**—The nature of the reading process is twofold—physiological and mental or psychological. The physiological aspect is principally in the field of the visual and motor senses. For at least a half century, scientific investigation has been revealing the importance of this phase of the nature of reading. It has been discovered that the eye in reading performs certain definite functions and makes certain more or less regular movements. Among these functions and movements the most significant is the fixing of images on the retina during the moments of pause or rest, which occur as the eye moves rhythmically across a page of print. It is at such fixation points that reading takes place. While the field of vision varies with individuals, yet is probably limited by nature, the span of recognition, that is, the space or extent of words which the mind may take in as the eye pauses on its way, varies not only with the individual but also in response to training. The teacher should remember the fundamental difference between oral and silent reading: Oral reading is a form of physical response rather than primarily a thought-getting process,

and, therefore, will require special lessons to secure satisfactory results. Silent reading is a thought-getting activity basic to expressive oral reading.

5. The relation of psychology to the reading process.—It will have been evident that the reading process is exceedingly complex, the physiological and the psychological factors each being manifold in its ramifications but together presenting an integrated whole. At the moments of eye-fixation, preferably in larger reading context, reading takes place by reason of the phenomena of the recognition of words and of the comprehension of larger language-units through association of ideas previously acquired in experience, either actual or vicarious, or both. Interest is of vital importance to the whole problem of teaching children to read. The source of interest lies in the value it has for the reader. The pupil's successful reaction, the teacher's genuine interest, the selection's recognized usefulness, and the individualization of activities according to the pupils' personal tastes, are pathways to interested reading.

Attention, too, has an important bearing upon satisfactory reading. Meaningful, fruitful effort requires the focusing of attention. Furthermore, the phenomena of primary and secondary attention help materially to effect continuity of reading across the printed page.

Reading, however, which leads a child merely in the intellectual footsteps of another, while it has its value, lacks much of permanent worth as a classroom activity. Reading should also be provocative of original thinking, and in turn original thinking will indicate an increasingly noticeable relation to the growth of comprehension.

Finally, the child's affective nature has much to do with his realizing the highest values from his reading.

6. The hygienic implications of the physio-psychological basis of the reading process.—The hygienic implications of a study of the physiological and psychological aspects of reading are many. Briefly, they may be classified under the following general heads: the careful selection of reading material, the thoughtful planning of reading lessons, and the conservation of the physical and mental health of pupils. In connection with the first of these, the teacher should consider the physical make-up of the text-books in the pupils' hands, the print, language, and content not only of class readers but also of every other book in use. In connection with the second, the teacher should consider the time when reading should begin and, in particular, the length of the reading lessons given. In connection with the third, both the child's sensory system and his mental health should be kept in mind. Besides, the physical features of the classroom must be viewed in the light of their contribution to reading efficiency and progress.

II. Reading in the Beginning Grades
The Period of Reading Habit Formation

7. The preparatory or pre-book stage of reading.—Each child enters upon his reading course with a physical and mental endowment varying widely from that of any other child. His endowment has been developed through common experience in the home, in the street, and possibly in the nursery school and kindergarten. It has been enriched by knowledge similarly acquired. The beginning-reading teacher's problem is to coördinate the efforts of the individual pupils and make them work team-fashion, to provide suitable reading activities to meet their differing needs, and to help them bridge the gap between the

oral symbols they know and the printed symbols they probably do not know. Apart from the vital importance of the teacher's personality the chief factors insuring success are adequate testing, sensible motivation, and well-prepared practice exercises for direct teaching, seat-work, and drill. Oral reading and silent reading will form part of the beginning reader's program.

8. **The initial or beginning stage of book reading.**—The initial or beginning period of book reading seeks to lead the child from the oral to the written symbol as readily as possible. During this period interesting content and simple language are before the pupil. Daily reading periods are provided, with carefully prepared practice suited to the group and individual needs of the children. The pre-primer work should be apparent in the advance made. Phonics, informal dictionary study, dramatization are employed to assist the reading process. Oral and silent reading, with frequent testing, mark the child's progress.

9. **The rapid-progress stage of beginning reading—the second year.**—In the second and third grades the normal child normally trained in the first year should show continuing progress in all of the reading abilities that his earlier teachers sought to develop. Through carefully prepared lessons for specific ends the teachers of the second and third grades lead their pupils to read with greater comprehension and speed. Reading becomes increasingly a thinking process, as well a means to study as to recreation.

10. **The rapid-progress stage of beginning reading—the third year.**—Reading in the third year is a natural continuation of the process developed in the second year and earlier. Oral reading should not be neglected but

should have its part with silent reading, the one aiding and supplementing the other at times. The practically purposeful activity incident to the classroom project is of importance. Drill work will continue, and testing, both standardized and unstandardized, will be carefully conducted.

III. Reading in the Middle Grades
The Period of Varied Reading Activities

11. **Teacher and pupil preparation.**—A middle-grade class will probably present many of the reading difficulties encountered by teachers in the earlier grades. The problem will, therefore, be twofold: to prepare the pupils for advance work in wide reading, and to afford them adequate practice in the elements of reading. Although various causes over which the school may not have control have tended to retard progress, these should not discourage the teacher but should rather lead to greater effort in careful testing, skillful preparation and adjustment of means to ends. Patience and sympathy as well as resourcefulness and zeal will help solve the problem.

Teacher preparation and pupil preparation are both necessary before the reading period begins. Proper selection of suitable material is most essential. Reading aims should be not only general but also definite and specific for the particular lesson in mind. Recreatory and work-type lessons must be considered, while regularly planned, well-integrated practice or drill periods will be necessary. Interest may be secured and maintained in several ways, including, especially, due consideration of the apperceptive basis built up through prior learning in books and experience. There is need of a sensible use of illustrative

material, of class rivalry, of a sense of mystery and imagination, and other appeals.

12. **Teaching children to read orally with understanding and feeling.**—Oral reading is primarily for audience situations with selections which have social value. Conversational study, dramatization, clipping-exchange, radio hour, and imaginary trip may all provide genuine audience situations, while material having a group appeal, such as humor or choice pieces of verse, may indicate possibilities for oral reading. The conclusion and the assignment, if any, should not be mere after-thoughts but rather integral parts of a lesson-whole, clear and contributory as well as properly timed.

13. **Teaching children to read silently with pleasure and efficiency.**—The time devoted to silent reading and oral reading will vary according to circumstances. Both should be found in every grade, with silent reading more prominent as the classes advance. Silent reading is a form of study which should have a large part in the learning process, not only of literature but of arithmetic, geography, history, and all other subjects as well. Silent reading may also play a most important part in the recreatory life of pupils. It will be borne in mind that in teaching silent reading there should be specific purposes to be achieved.

14. **Practice periods in the middle grades.**—Closely associated with the regular silent reading period, when comprehension of varied material is the prime objective, there should be well-prepared practice periods. These will be designed to meet pupils' needs as they are revealed in regular reading periods and also in tests. Four very important practice periods for all pupils will be set apart to enlarge their vocabulary, to widen their span of recogni-

tion, to increase their reading rate, and to improve their comprehension. Remedial measures wisely devised after careful testing, and regularly employed, will effect satisfactory results.

IV. Reading in the Junior High School Grades
The Period of Extensive Silent Reading and Expressive Oral Reading

15. Teaching children how to enjoy literature.—Though the junior high school grades are not to be viewed in the light of a separate institution entirely distinct from the lower grades, they nevertheless present their own problems to the teacher of reading. Pupils have now had six years of school work, more or less regularly conducted, and should be ready to read better and more widely than in the elementary school. And yet, the junior high school pupil may prove disappointing as a reader. He must be accorded ample opportunity for extensive reading in literary masterpieces as well as in the factual matter of the content subjects, and he must be instructed in the refinements of reading.

His oral reading should begin to show a marked improvement in expressive power. Literature should mean something more than so many pages to "go over at home"—than a task to be accomplished, upon which he will recite the following day and be marked for his performance. Rather should his reading of poetry and prose lead to a deeper, more cultured appreciation of the selection in hand. He should become more and more able to perceive the niceties of expression, as these are revealed in vocabulary and figures of speech, for example.

He should be encouraged to sustain his interest in the same subject-matter over several periods. He should be

trained to keep to a line of work until it is acceptably completed. Furthermore, he should continue to receive instruction in the fundamentals of reading for, although he has been exposed to the reading process for a number of years, he will still be in need of practice and improvement even while he is advancing beyond the elementary levels of achievement.

16. **Teaching children how to read factual subject matter.**—Reading factual matter in the junior high school is essentially a study process wherein both intensive and extensive reading are necessary. The pupils' reading is really thinking—a directed, purposeful activity of first importance, exercised variously with content-subjects and with subjects of common experience. Discriminating, efficient, independent reading should be more and more apparent as pupils advance to the end of their ninth year in school.

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[NOTE.—The extension division of the University of Florida conducts a correspondence course in the teaching of reading, The tuition fee is nominal.]

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